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## NOTES.

THE news from the Indian frontier is of the most disquieting kind. There is no doubt that the rising of the tribes is the greatest crisis with which we have had to deal in India since 1887, and the magnitude of the danger is shown by the extensive movement of troops the Indian Government has been compelled to undertake. These frontier tribes contain some of the finest fighting men in all the world, and if there is any combination amongst them the task of suppressing the rising will be one of the utmost difficulty. All the news to hand shows that the revolt is very widespread, and our soldiers have as yet probably only touched the fringe of the disturbed districts. The main body of fighting men are sure to have taken up their position in the midst of their almost impregnable hills, and the process of dislodging them cannot fail to be both tedious and dangerous work. Those places which have already surrendered about the Swat Valley and the Malakand Pass were in all probability defended principally by women and old men left behind by the fighting men. The whole country around is mountainous and rugged in the extreme, and water is often very scarce. Of course we shall conquer the tribes in the end, for their weapons are of the crudest kind, but it will cost us a good deal both in money and in men.

The causes of the rising are not doubtful. It is the forward policy the Indian Government has been pursuing on the frontier which is solely responsible. The occupation of Chitral has made the tribesmen fear for their independence, and as most of them are still ignorant of our power they have made a wild effort to stop our advance into their mountainous homes. In ordinary times the tribes are always at war with each other, clan against clan, and family against family. The great danger is that in the face of their common peril they may forget their quarrels and combine against us. No doubt their leaders have thought that the present was a favourable moment to attack us, as vague reports of the riots and disturbances in India would give them the impression that we were in difficulties. The suggestion that the Sultan has had anything to do with it is of course absurd. The Moham-medans on the Indian frontier neither know nor care anything about him.

The Ameer is no doubt not wholly displeased to see us in trouble, but that he has had any direct influence in instigating the rising is unlikely. He has too great a liking for his subsidy to run the risk of losing it, and though he may not like us he certainly likes Russia less. He is an astute ruler, and no doubt has the Oriental turn for playing false to both sides. But his object is to strengthen himself against both Russia and England. If he wanted to raise a quarrel with us, now

of course would be his time with all the frontier in an uproar ; but everything points to his being friendly at the present time, and we may accept his assurances that he has had nothing to do with the disturbances and is exerting what influence he has over the tribes to keep them quiet.

The pity of it is that these fine fighting men should be fighting against us and not for us. When well drilled and armed they make magnificent soldiers, and the policy of the Indian Government in alienating them from us is a gigantic blunder. During the whole of Lord Lansdowne's administration mistake after mistake has been made. The military influence has been predominant in India, and at the India Office in England the opinions and advice of the wisest counsellors have been contemptuously disregarded. "What can you expect," asks one of our correspondents, "when the opinion of every one of experience is set aside in favour of that of a self-sufficient and ignorant prig like Mr. George Curzon?" Our true policy towards the frontier tribes should be one of conciliation and friendliness. To annex their territory and to make military roads is to weaken, not strengthen, the frontier. The mountains and the tribes themselves are our best defence, and to make it easy for our forces to cross the frontier from one side is at the same time to make it easy for an enemy to descend from the other. It is certain that, until wiser counsels prevail at the India Office, we shall continue to have these frontier troubles.

It is not strictly correct to speak of the tribe with whom the trouble commenced as Swatis. The majority of the Swatis proper are now settled in Boner, whither they were driven by the Pathans who came eastward from Kabul and took possession of the Peshawar Valley. They are a miserable race, with the Pathan's capacity for cold-blooded murder and avarice, but with none of his courage and little of his sense of hospitality. Of all the tribes the Afridis are the most numerous and have the worst reputation for ferocity and spirit. Though they have aided us in keeping the Khyber Pass free, they are recognized as anything but reliable. Their fidelity to us, such as it has been, even in conflicts with their own people, is traceable not to any love they bear us, but to the blood feud which every Afridi has with nine out of ten of his fellows—to say nothing of his perpetual quarrels with adjacent tribes such as the Mohmands on the north, the Shinwaris on the west, the Orakzais on the south, and the Khataks on the east. They dwell on the lower and easternmost slopes of the Safed Koh range, south-west of the Peshawar district. They are broken up into a number of *khels*—the Kuki, Kamar, Sipah, Aka, and others—and are very numerous. A general rising of the Afridis would be very serious.

The Swat country comprises the valley of the Swat river, and stretches from Charorai to the Panjcora, a distance of seventy miles, with a width in some places of ten miles and in others of no more than one mile. The country is thickly populated, the number of the inhabitants, who are all Suni Mohammedans, being given in round figures as 100,000. It is very fertile; along the course of the river the valley is surrounded on all sides by an unbroken stretch of cultivation. All the available land near the river is sown with rice, and that on the higher slopes with wheat, cotton, sugar, and other crops, in which there is a considerable trade with British territory in times of peace. The men, for Afghans, are weakly and thin, and have the reputation of being the most bigoted of all the tribes. Such government as they enjoy is like that of all Pathan tribes—a complete democracy. The country is split up into more factions than there are villages. For in one village there are often several factions, each with its separate quarrels, and each supporting its own chief, who is customarily at mortal feud with most of his relations and neighbours, and who is never obeyed one moment longer than is convenient.

The Mohmands inhabit the hill district to the north-west of Peshawar, between the Kohat and Swat rivers. They are divided into half a dozen clans, and are particularly prone to dacoities, perhaps because the country in which they dwell is rugged and poor. The Orakzais, who are said to have agreed to act in concert with the Afridis, are separated from that interesting people by the main watershed of the Bara and Tirah. The Afghans repudiate any family connexion with them. They cannot be regarded as one tribe politically, any more than the bulk of their neighbours; while to attempt a description of our relations with them as one body would be impossible. The bonds which unite them to one another and to the rest of the tribes are the common lust of plunder and hatred of the infidel.

We have received private intelligence that the dispute between the Transvaal judges and the President is now practically settled. That the settlement is an honourable one will be readily understood by all who know the character of Chief Justice Kotze. Henceforward the authority and independence of the judges are to be established beyond all interference. We cannot congratulate the judges on their achievement without at the same time congratulating President Kruger on his concession. It is seldom that a despot divests himself of power for the benefit of the people over whom he rules.

It would seem that President Kruger is to be congratulated in another respect. Certain telegrams in the newspapers have given the impression during the week that he was inclined to obstruct the realization of the reforms recommended by the Industrial Commission. A special cable to the "Standard and Diggers' News," a journal upon whose information in such cases we are always disposed to place great reliance, contradicts this impression. According to this authority it is perceived by the Transvaal Government that it would be dangerous to the interests of the State to delay granting the reforms. It goes even further, and states that President Kruger himself is determined that the report of the Commission shall be adopted in its entirety. If this is the case, the renewed confidence in the affairs of the Transvaal will be further enhanced. A generous policy towards the mining industry will speedily remove the discontent at Johannesburg. At the same time it is as well to remember, whilst applauding the attitude of the Transvaal Government, that it is the only attitude which is consonant with the prosperity and interests of the State.

Just after the Jameson Raid Mr. Chamberlain was overwhelmed with compliments on the prompt and vigorous measures he took to set matters right. He got all the credit then, but the various inquiries into the circumstances of the Raid have left him none. Now he stands in the position of a statesman who, if not voluntarily blind to what was going on in South Africa, was at least hoodwinked all the time by Mr.

Rhodes and the Chartered Company. He pretended to have issued a proclamation disavowing the Raid. It turns out that not he but Mr. Hofmeyr really issued it. He pretended that, on a hint from the late Mr. Fairfield, he came up to London from Birmingham at the end of December in order to be on the spot. The South African Blue Book published this week shows that the hint did not come from Mr. Fairfield at all, but from the German Government; for on 28 December there was communicated to the British Ambassador at Berlin a despatch from the German Consul at Pretoria, dated 24 December, in which it was definitely stated that trouble was expected in the next few days, and that the Transvaal Government were taking steps to deal with it.

No wonder that Mr. Chamberlain's reputation as Colonial Secretary is under a cloud. No one can pretend for a moment that he has cleared himself. For the case stands thus. Dr. Harris hinted at the prospective action to be taken by the conspirators. Mr. Chamberlain took no heed. It was hinted at again in the presence of Mr. Beit and Mr. Hawkesley. Mr. Chamberlain was still in profound ignorance. Mr. Fairfield suggested it. Mr. Chamberlain's thoughts were apparently still with Khama and far away from Johannesburg. Then the German Government told him plainly three days before the Raid that serious trouble was expected immediately, and it is clear from the Blue-book that Berlin knew more about what was going on in South Africa than our own Colonial Office. Still Mr. Chamberlain took no steps to stop the conspirators. Never was a man so impervious to hints. It is surely some new and extraordinary form of deafness with which he was afflicted.

The duel of Prince Henri d'Orléans with the Count de Turin has called forth, as usual, an amount of sneering and cheap moralizing from a section of the English press which, to say the least, is incompetent to pronounce upon such matters by reason of its utter ignorance of the unwritten, but nevertheless inexorable, social laws that prevail in France on the subject. How often are those glib writers whose knowledge of French customs is derived from a few weeks' holiday to be reminded that for a Frenchman of standing to refuse a challenge practically means social ostracism for ever and probably a slur on his children, unless he can prove by an appeal to a *jury d'honneur* that the challenger was not a fit person to "meet"?

Personally we hold no brief for the eldest son of the Duc de Chartres, who in his constant attacks upon England seems curiously oblivious that it is the country which afforded his family shelter at a time of dire adversity, and that it is the land which gave him birth. In his strictures on the Italian army he also conveniently forgets that his father owes his military training to it and won his first spurs there. Perhaps his scheme is to play to the French gallery previously to assuming the rôle of a Pretender. It would surprise no one. Not only has the younger branch of the Bourbons always been a thorn in the side of the elder, but the juniors of both branches have often conspired against their seniors. Louis XIII.'s brother ostensibly conspired against Richelieu, in reality against the Sovereign, especially when the latter's marriage looked like being fruitless. Philippe Egalité conspired against Louis XIV., and the Comte de Provence (afterwards Louis XVIII.) did the same. Philippe Egalité's son, Louis Philippe, usurped the throne of Charles X. Louis Philippe's grandson, the late Comte de Paris, never abandoned his somewhat Platonic claim to the French throne, notwithstanding his pseudo-reconciliation with the Comte de Chambord. Prince Henri may think his cousin "somewhat of a laggard in his pretensions," and under the pretext of spurring him on pursue his own designs. If so, he could least of all afford to decline a meeting with the stepson of a Lætitia Bonaparte, whose father descended to his grave branded as a coward for having refused to face Prince Henri's grand-uncle, the late Duc d'Aumale.

At last Sir Matthew White Ridley has plucked up courage to revise Mr. Justice Day's atrocious sentence



on a child. The boy Arthur Cripps will be released in a few days, the sentence of eighteen months' imprisonment inflicted by the judge having been reduced to three. One would have thought that a Home Secretary of ordinary humanity would at once have reduced the sentence without waiting for pressure from the outside, but it has only been after repeated and vehement protests that Sir Matthew White Ridley has done this ordinary act of justice. At any rate Mr. Justice Day will now understand, we trust, that he is not at liberty to inflict what monstrous sentences he pleases on offenders who have the misfortune to come before him. After a few more lessons of this kind he and some of his fellow-judges will realize perhaps that even they cannot afford to disregard wholly the principles of common justice.

We are glad that Lord Salisbury has so far resolutely declined to agree to the progressive evacuation of Thessaly suggested by the Sultan and agreed to by the other Powers, but it is doubtful whether he will be able to hold out very long, and in the end the Sultan will very likely get his way. German influence is, without a doubt, responsible for the assent of the other Powers to a proposal which practically means that a large portion of Greek territory will remain in the hands of Turkey for an indefinite time. This would not only be a breach of the Berlin Treaty; it would be a flat contradiction of the declaration of the Powers at the beginning of the war that they would allow no alteration in the *status quo*. Germany is bidding very high for the Sultan's favour, and expects, no doubt, to get a large return in one way or another. But we would not care to give much for anything she may get out of the Sultan. German diplomacy is both astute and unscrupulous, but it is no match for that of Abdul the Clever.

The Greek Legation in London has issued an "official defence" of Greek finances, and we feel bound to say that it has left us unconvinced. We do not go to the length of saying that the Greek Government has "defrauded" its former creditors, but it undoubtedly did use for the purposes of a hopeless war money which should rightly have been applied either to the further development of the country's resources, or better still, to the payment of some portion of the debt that was renounced in 1893. There has been a surplus during the last three completed years of 17 million drachmæ, in large measure as the result of the renunciation, and this money formed the bulk of the funds that enabled the Government "to face the difficult crisis through which the national finances have had to pass." The expenses of the war have not all been met, and the operations of this year have injured the country's trade so much that there will be a deficit. In these circumstances there is a probability that Greece will be forced to renounce the whole or part of the remaining 30 per cent. of its foreign debt, and in the interests of its creditors it is highly desirable that its finances should be placed under independent control.

Djevad Pasha has been showing in Crete that he is as clever a diplomatist as his master. In one way and another he has been pushing himself forward and twisting the Admirals round his little finger. When he went to Crete it was understood that he was really going to do nothing at all. He was only just going to look on and see what was being done. Now he has given the Mohammedan population the impression that he is the most important person there, and the Sultan's prestige, which had almost reached the vanishing point, has been wholly restored. It is impossible not to admire the ingenuity with which on Wednesday Djevad Pasha succeeded in getting the first place for the Turkish troops in the march past in honour of the Emperor of Austria's birthday. The simple Admirals are like so much clay in his hands.

"Do you bite your thumb at me, sir?" said the Austrian Ambassador at Constantinople to Prince Ferdinand. "No, sir," replied the Prince; "I do not bite my thumb at you, sir; but I bite my thumb, sir." The Prince, when on that famous visit to the Sultan,

was very sore at the snubbing he had received from Austria, so instead of calling at the Austrian Embassy and leaving his card, he sent it by the porter of the Russian Embassy. But the Austrian Ambassador went one better and sent his card in return to the Prince by post. It was a rather childish display of pique, but it is not surprising that Prince Ferdinand felt very sore. Vienna and St. Petersburg are in the habit of treating him like a naughty child, and it was very hard upon him that, snubbed on all sides, he had as the last resort to bid for the favour of the Sultan, just when he had been meditating a declaration of independence for Bulgaria.

The Postmaster-General's decision in the case of the leaders of the recalcitrant telegraphists at Newcastle-on-Tyne has certainly not thrown oil on the troubled waters. The terms of the resolution for which Mr. McKeone and Mr. Henderson have been held responsible were undoubtedly ill considered and deserving of censure. The refusal of a public servant to work overtime within reasonable limits when the exigencies of the service require it is altogether indefensible and amounts to insubordination; and it is clear that, if conduct of this sort were permitted, the public would be liable to the most serious inconvenience, especially during periods of exceptional pressure, such as Christmas-time. Therefore we agree with the Duke of Norfolk that the resolution was "obviously a resolution inciting to insubordination." But it was unconditionally withdrawn; and under the circumstances, and particularly in view of the species of truce entered into three or four weeks ago, it seems to us that the decision to dock these two men of two shillings a week each was a grave mistake.

This is the more disappointing because the Duke has shown during the controversy every desire to be fair-minded. Possibly he thought it necessary to make some concession to his advisers on the staff, whose notions of official discipline would doubtless have been scandalized had no punishments been inflicted. But in so doing he missed the opportunity for a generous stroke of policy which would not have been misunderstood. In such cases half measures are nearly always wrong. To be sure, the telegraphists do not occupy nearly so strong a position now as they did three weeks ago. The racing season is on the wane; the holiday season and the cricket season are almost over. The policy of striking would have been a bad one for the strikers at the best of times; but, even if it had been a wise policy, the time for adopting it has passed.

The death of Sir William Jervois has removed a man who left his mark on the British Empire. During long years whenever the defences of any part of the British dominions needed looking to, the assistance of Sir William Jervois seems to have been in request. He made surveys in South Africa, he improved the natural fortifications of Quebec, he reported on the requirements of Bombay and various other places in India, he instructed New Zealand how to make her harbours secure, and he told Australasia some plain truths concerning her military requirements. He augmented British authority in Malaysia with eminently beneficial results, and he succeeded in bursting the bonds of the old official régime sufficiently to win for himself abiding fame as the most popular of New Zealand Governors. Yet his popularity was not won by sycophancy. He had an adequate idea of his own importance, and he was never backward in telling the Colonies what he really thought. He fixed responsibility upon the Colonial working-man for the discouragement of emigration which would increase competition and keep down wages, and he bluntly assured Australia that, in his opinion, the grass would grow in the streets of Melbourne and Sydney if the British fleet withdrew from Australian shores.

President Faure's departure for St. Petersburg was not effected without the customary bomb. Fortunately the engine exploded without hurting any one, and without doing much damage. It seemed, indeed, to go off in a perfunctory sort of way, and its objective,

if it was really directed at the President, which seems doubtful, did not even hear it, the train having departed some minutes before. The breakdown of the cruiser "Bruix," one of the ships which was to have escorted the President to Russia, has caused a much greater sensation throughout France. It is not only that it is an evil omen. It gives rise to uncomfortable reflections upon the general condition of the French navy. The "Bruix" is a new vessel, and the breakdown of its engines when not going at an unusual speed has caused much dissatisfaction. The "Débats" roundly declares, indeed, that the "ridiculous and deplorable incident can only throw discredit on the fleet." The arrival of M. Faure in St. Petersburg, and the extensive preparations that have been made for his reception, will, however, soon dispel the unfavourable impression the incident has caused, and French vanity will be gratified to the top of its bent. One effect of the visit will certainly be to strengthen the Republic. If a President can represent France at a foreign Court in this fashion, the last reason for existence of a Royal head for the State will have disappeared.

The Belgian expedition to the Antarctic sailed from Antwerp this week to the accompaniment of much bunting and the firing of salutes. It is under M. de Gerlache, who may congratulate himself on being the first in the field. The "Belgica" will make her attack upon the northern continent from Graham's Land. The region is associated with the names of Weddell, Morrell, Biscoe, and (in quite recent years) the Dundee and Norwegian whalers which went that way in the vain search after "right" whales. It will not be forgotten that Captain Larsen of the "Jason" made some valuable discoveries in 1893-4 in latitude 68° S., longitude 60° W. But no one has penetrated further in this quarter than the sealer Weddell, who reached latitude 74° S. just seventy-four years ago. We hope the "Belgica" will reach a point still nearer to the South Pole; but, at the least, unless something untoward should happen, it will add considerably to our stock of scientific information regarding Antarctica.

If we grant the right of our Colonies to control their own coasting trade, the United Kingdom Chamber of Shipping has got on a wrong scent. By the provisions of the New Zealand Shipping Act of last year it was enacted that seamen employed on New Zealand vessels or on vessels engaged in the New Zealand coasting trade should be paid at the rate of wages current in the country. In that favoured Colony seamen have, we understand, an eight-hours day and the unique luxury of overtime for work in excess of that limit. Our Chamber of Shipping finds itself aggrieved because the Act interferes with contracts entered into between British owners and seamen. But this can only happen when British ships bring themselves under the operation of the New Zealand law by carrying goods and passengers between different ports in that country.

Mr. Hall Caine has at length played that greasy trump-card which we all knew to be up his sleeve, a letter from Mr. Gladstone. The aged politician cordially hopes that "The Christian" will obtain "all the results with a view to which it has obviously been composed." No one who knows Mr. Hall Caine could for one instant doubt that he would get all he wanted. We have often wondered whether this person be a charlatan with a passion for money, a genuine megalomaniac who believes himself to be a great writer, or just a simple soul that must feed itself with advertisement. We wish we could induce him to write an autobiography. His evolution from plain John Caine to the name he now bears, his frantic bid for knighthood over the question of Canadian Copyright, his use of brother Ralph the advertiser, his countless letters and telegrams to editors, his historic meeting with Miss Marie Corelli, his anxiety to be made Governor of the Isle of Man, and his awful disappointment when Lord Rosebery, abashed by certain "previous" paragraphs, did not give him his heart's desire—all these things, frankly described by Mr. Hall Caine, would make good reading.

## THE INDIAN DANGER.

### I.

IT is not as yet possible for the public to ascertain precisely either what is the nature or what is likely to prove the extent of the tribal risings on our Indian frontier. Telegrams from India throw but little light upon the matter. The authorities themselves are obviously reticent; and when the Government of India is not disposed to give information as to matters which are in course of development beyond its frontiers, little weight should be attached to private sources of professed information. None but the political officers of the Government of India have reliable means of learning what is passing in the tribal country concerned. Even these officers are frequently misled, or insufficiently informed, or are the dupes of their own desires. But, if we cannot as yet speak positively as to the reasons for what seems to the public a sudden and unprovoked outbreak of hostility, we are daily learning that at least it cannot be assigned to causes which, in the first blush of the business, were thrust with somewhat suspicious alacrity and eagerness into the foreground. It is pretty certain now, for example, to most of us that the Amir of Kábul is not behind the movement. To those who are conversant with Indian politics, and with the influences which are mostly powerful therein, it is no surprise, again, to find that the direct influence of the Sultan is no longer supposed to have much to say to the present disturbances. Finally, there is no such general wave of unrest passing over the Muhammadans of India and of the countries adjacent to it as would account for this gathering of tribes. Before going so far afield for an explanation of this phenomenon, it is prudent, and indeed necessary, to inquire whether the present disturbances on the frontier can be accounted for by causes which lie nearer home. The prominence given in some quarters to the several alleged motives above indicated may indicate a desire to turn away attention from a line of inquiry which might prove embarrassing to some among our own countrymen. It will be impossible much longer to evade the question whether the present disturbances on the frontier are anything other than the response of the border tribes which are comprised within the limits of the tract known as "Yaghistan" to the forcible occupation and retention of Malakand and Chakdara, in the Swát country, and to the establishment and maintenance of a British military road through the heart of tribal territory.

Until the authorities in India or at Whitehall are more communicative, this question cannot be answered. It is important, meanwhile, to ascertain what sections of the great tribal body are actually taking part in the movement. The telegrams hitherto published fail, apparently, to discriminate between the several groups composing that body. Swátis, Bonerwáls, Momands, Orakzáis, even Afridis, are successively brought into the field; while at other times the movement would seem limited to Momands and to a section of the Swátis. The extent of the military preparations which unquestionably are being pressed on by the Government of India, at a season of the year little favourable either to the health or the transport of troops in India, seems to indicate apprehensions of a very formidable gathering on the tribal side of the frontier. The Indian Government has doubtless good reason for its prolonged reticence, and is possibly endeavouring by every means in its power to maintain amicable relations with some, at least, of the tribal group, and to detach these from the movement. But should there prove to be a combined outbreak across the border, which is beyond question proved to be the reply of the united tribes to the policy adopted in the occupation of Chitral in 1895, it would furnish such a comment on the assurances given by Lord Elgin's Government in that year, when urging the retention of Chitral and of the road which leads to it through Swát territory, as must raise questions vital to the continuance of the present Viceroy's administration. In view of the very extensive military preparations reported from Simla, and of the great strain on the Indian finances, the Government of India cannot much longer delay some pronouncement as to the causes of



the disturbances; and as to the extent of the danger to resist which they are making such unusual and costly preparations. All that can be said with certainty at the present moment is that if, in truth, owing to whatever cause, Momand, Swâti, Bonerwâl, Orakzâi, and Afridi are leagued against the Government of India, the British authorities in that country have a bigger business on their hands than any which has engaged their attention since 1857.

The time, therefore, does not seem to have yet come to review in the light of matured events the policy which led to the retention of Chitral, after the campaign of 1895. But, while awaiting further information as to the character and extent of the recent rising, it may with certainty be affirmed that what is known as the late Sir Robert Sandeman's policy—the policy which was introduced by that distinguished officer in his dealings with the border tribes lying between British Balûchistan and the Punjab—has not, so far, shown itself successful when applied to Swât. The Sandeman policy sought to substitute more intimate relations and a more sympathetic feeling between the Government of India and the tribes on its border for the reserve and “aloofness” of the Lawrence school. Sir Robert was wont to step boldly into tribal territory; establish British centres of influence at selected points; place British troops at each such centre; and from these points endeavour to exercise a pacifying and conciliatory influence on the tribesmen among whom he had introduced himself. This policy has of late years recommended itself to the Government of India, and formed the model on which it sought to establish itself in Swât and in the country beyond Swât. Hostile critics have always contended that this policy, whether as practised by Sir Robert Sandeman or as improved on by his admirers in high places, spells annexation writ small. While the one party point to the undoubted success of the Sandeman policy in the tracts to which he applied it, the other will have it that a policy which may prove suitable to tribes westward of the Punjab would rouse the fiercest opposition, and would utterly fail if applied to the different circumstances and wholly distinct tribal organization which prevail to the east of Peshawar. Whether or no the present disturbances along so many miles of our border in India are connected with the Chitral policy adopted by the Government of India in 1895, it is unquestionable that at least in Swât itself the results anticipated from the introduction of Sandeman principles and practice have by no means been attained. This is the more disappointing because the war of 1895 was scarcely over, and the British flag had been hoisted but a few days at Malakand and Chakdara, when we were assured on the highest authority that the Swâti tribesmen positively clamoured to us to remain in their country. The triumph of the new principles seemed complete; but it is evident now that the delight of the Swâtis in 1895 was by no means either general or long-lived.

It is permissible for a disciple of the Sandeman school to reply that neither did Sir Robert Sandeman always succeed in establishing himself at once. Little expeditions were sometimes needed after a tribe had recovered from its first delight at welcoming him. A little military excursion—such as that of the Zhob field force, for example—was occasionally required before the tribesmen concerned could be finally convinced of the appropriateness of the Sandeman policy to their own especial case. If it should be found that the tribes adjoining Swât are encouraging that territory to resist, the obvious remedy therefore will be to bring conviction, first, to Swât; and then to explain to the tribes adjoining Swât the scheme and principles of the Sandeman policy. Their resistance, if they are prevailed upon duly to understand its great advantages, will in course of time melt away; and the sinister forebodings of those who in 1895 warned the Indian authorities of the perilous course they were pursuing in retaining tribal territory will be lost in congratulations on the admission of Yaghistan into the great Anglo-Indian political family. It may be feared that we are probably some little way off that consummation yet, whether within Swât or without it. But be this as it may, the Sandeman policy has for the last two years been fairly on its trial in a tribe belonging to a group to

which it has been by some pronounced unsuitable. Whatever the cause, character, or extent of the frontier disturbances, here at least we find ourselves upon solid ground. It is therefore interesting and profitable to observe how far that policy has succeeded in conciliating Swâtis, and how far, therefore, we may expect to be able to utilize it later if applied to other tribes. For the moment, it must be conceded, the prospects are not altogether encouraging.

A. COLVIN.

## II.

THE disquieting state of the North-West Frontier may easily be exaggerated, and there is no reason to take an alarmist view of the situation. It was a matter of course that the intentions of the Amir of Afghanistan should be called in question by those who have an interest in embittering his relations with the Government of India, and the “*Journal des Débats*” is speculating on the political results of our final conquest and occupation of Afghanistan. But it may be affirmed with much confidence that the Amir Abdur Rahman is far too astute a ruler to compromise himself by any open advocacy or support of hostile tribes on our borders. His ideas and political methods are perfectly familiar to us; and although he is as brusque and perverse as all his race, and although his diplomatic manners resemble those of Mr. Sherman, and have always given great and reasonable umbrage to the orthodox officials of the Indian Foreign Office, he has shown himself well disposed to England, who has done everything for him and nothing against him, and has always known how to recede in time from an indefensible position. He has no desire to surrender the fat subsidy which he receives from England, and he knows the power of England too well to risk a rupture which would signify his destruction. Even should he call Russia to his aid she would not come, and he understands the fable of the sheep who called in the wolves to help them against the rude and troublesome dogs. Abdur Rahman has no love for Russia, and trusts fully that England will protect him from her. At the same time, although most of the stories of the Amir's hostile action may be accepted as mere malicious gossip, the sweepings of the Peshawar bazaars, yet we know that the Amir is exceedingly fond of playing to the gallery, and in times of religious excitement he is quite ready to pose as a valiant champion of Islam. When he marched from the Oxus to negotiate with us before his accession, the country was flooded with inflammatory appeals to Afghan zeal and patriotism against the invader. He desired then, as he desires now, to raise his market value and to prove himself so valuable a friend and so formidable an enemy as to command a higher price. This is the regular Afghan diplomatic system, and it is probably quite as respectable as those in vogue at St. Petersburg or Washington. Under no circumstances is it worth either surprise or annoyance. Abdur Rahman has, for an Afghan, been an excellent ruler, quite as progressive, as unscrupulous, and cruel as Peter the Great; and if he lives long enough he will, like the Russian, have venerated a race of savages with superficial civilization. That he intends seriously to break with us is incredible; and unless the Indian Foreign Office is destitute of both humour and imagination, a rupture is impossible. At the same time, it must be admitted that the moment is most favourable for the assumption by the Amir of his favourite rôle of Defender of the Faith, and he is doubtless vapouring in Kabul about the glory of Islam and the crushing defeats inflicted by the Sultan on the unbelievers. But these amusements of Abdur Rahman are as inconvenient to us as the telegrams of the German Emperor, and increase the frontier excitement. All that is urged is that too great importance should not be attached to them and that they are a mere incident of our frontier position.

It is not possible to say whether the tribal outbreaks will extend, and the Mohmand raid at Shabkar certainly seems to show that the Muhammadan feeling of the independent tribes is in a very excited and dangerous state. But the Mohmands have always been a fickle, troublesome people, and the sharp lesson which they have received ought to keep them quiet for some time

to come, and deter the Orakzais, who are reported as preparing to rise, from following their example. It is very unlikely that they will do so. The Orakzais live on the northern Kohat border and in the beautiful mountain district of Tirá, to which they retire in the summer months. They are a powerful and fanatical tribe and, in old days, gave us a great deal of trouble, but since an expedition was sent against them, in 1869, they have generally been quiet and well-behaved and certainly they have no grievance against us. They have never enlisted in any numbers, like the Afridis, in our regiments.

The question whether the present excitement among the Afghan tribes on our northern Punjab border is due to the Chitral policy of the Indian Government may well be left until the disturbances have been firmly and completely put down. No disputes as to policy can interfere with our plain duty, as the paramount Power, to maintain any position which we deliberately choose to take up on the frontier, whether the reasons which have influenced the Government be sound or insufficient. But a letter signed "Anglo-Indian," in the "Times" of the 17th, and which is printed in large type as if it were of deserved authority, requires a few words of notice, as its assumptions are open to much question. The letter is an attack on Sir John Acland for ignorance and want of patriotism; but the writer conveniently forgets that almost every authority which carries weight with the English public is in accord with Sir John Acland as to Chitral policy, and that the decision of the Government was given against the weight of expert evidence. Nor is it correct to say that the old system of frontier defence and punitive expeditions was a failure. It was, on the contrary, a brilliant success, and reduced the border, within a generation, from anarchy to prosperity and peace. The conduct of frontier affairs since the Government of India and the Commander-in-Chief have actively intervened has not been as successful as that of the Punjab Government, and they have spent more on frontier expeditions in the short time they have endeavoured, with insufficient knowledge, to direct them than the Punjab Government spent in thirty years.

As to the charge of breach of faith in the Chitral policy, it is sufficient to say that no one asserted that the country between our border and Chitral had been formally annexed, or that we were occupying or raising an impossible revenue from the barren stones of the Malakand Pass. What is asserted is that a military road, held by a military force, is virtual occupation, whatever sophists or casuists may say, and that it is so considered by the frontier tribes. On the same day that the letter of "Anglo-Indian" appeared, an interview by Reuter's Agency with Moulvi Rafiuddin Ahmad was published on the opposite page of the "Times," in which the following passage occurs:—

"The cause of the rising," the Moulvi continued, "has not yet been exactly ascertained. It may be mere fanaticism or it may be a deliberate protest on the part of the border tribes against the policy of the permanent occupation of Chitral and the neighbouring country by the Government of India in disregard of their own proclamation."

Without attaching any special value to the opinions of Moulvi Rafiuddin, it is well to point out that the sophistries which satisfy critics like "Anglo-Indian" are quietly brushed aside by the ordinary Muhammadan, whether an educated Moulvi or an uneducated Afghan, and that the Government of India can only overcome Oriental chicanery by straightforward adherence to their word, and that it is not sufficient to keep it in the letter if they break it in the spirit. Ex-C.S.I.

#### "THE MOST ABSOLUTE COMMERCIAL FREEDOM."

SIR WILFRID LAURIER on Monday last graciously received the medal-bearing deputation from the Cobden Club and communicated to the relatives and worshippers of the late Richard "the impression which he had gathered from what he had seen in Europe that England had nothing to fear for her commercial supremacy so long as she had one-sided Free trade." We regret the term, but really it is impossible to characterize this utterance as other than fatuous, and Sir Wilfrid's

own action in the matter of preferential trade deepens the fatuity of his words. Perhaps if he had seen more of Europe than a flying visit to Paris permitted he would have been less confident that England has nothing to fear. However, he was happier in his concluding utterance, for then he said the right thing, although its vagueness prevented any fluttering of alarm in his hearers' breasts. He said: "If the British Empire were to be maintained, it could only be on the lines of the most absolute freedom, political and commercial." The deputation received this aphorism with grateful applause. For ourselves, we heartily echo the applause because the statement conveys to our mind an impression directly opposite to that which the Cobden Clubites evidently received therefrom.

In all sincerity we put it to Lord Farrer and his friends, what do the words "most absolute commercial freedom" imply in their ordinary literary, common-sense, unsophisticated interpretation? They cannot possibly mean anything else than that our traders shall be absolutely unfettered in the sale of their merchandise to the buyers of other countries. At present we need hardly remind the Cobden Club (they are only too miserably conscious of the fact) that no such liberty exists, that Tariff walls are built around all foreign ports, and that the British trader finds it increasingly difficult to pass those walls with his goods. Now, testing these facts by Sir Wilfrid's dictum, we find that the maintenance of the British Empire is very seriously endangered, in that the essential condition of "most absolute freedom" is totally lacking. What, then, must we do if the maintenance of the British Empire is to be secured? Obviously, according to Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the applauding Cobdenites, the barriers against the "most absolute freedom" must be removed: breaches must be battered in those Tariff walls.

The practical question, therefore, is, How are those breaches to be made? There are two possible methods of getting your neighbour to abandon an objectionable practice. The first is to let the light of your own impeccable conduct so shine before him that he may see your good works and emulate them in the spirit of gratitude. This is the beautiful way. Unhappily it is mostly the ineffectual way. In affairs of trade, and more especially of international trade, it is almost always ineffectual. In respect to the matter under discussion it has been proved to be utterly ineffectual. For half a century have Cobden's angel wings flapped vainly against the Tariff walls of Europe and the United States. Not a brick has been displaced, not an ounce of cement has crumbled away. On the contrary, the builders of those walls have gone on piling layer upon layer, and adding thickness to thickness. We turn, then, to the second method of checking a neighbour's objectionable practices. That consists in aggressive warfare and the replying in kind. It is not so ideally nice as the other method, but it is usually effective; it is always effective when the aggressive aggrieved one is as strong as, or stronger than, his opponent. Now this condition exists in the case of England and her neighbours. A generation ago it existed in a much greater degree. Then it was a case of England first and the rest nowhere. England then was strong enough to take on single-handed all the other Powers, great and small, combined, and to laugh at the issue of the combat. To-day, unfortunately, she finds Germany alone a sufficient handful. Still, for the purpose of making holes in Tariff walls, she yet remains strong enough to use, and with good effect, the battering-ram of Retaliation. There are yet many things made in England which other countries would find it very inconvenient to do without; with the extension of foreign industrialism the need is steadily diminishing, it is true; but there is enough left to cause a Tariff war to be sharply felt. Yet more important, however, is the fact that some foreign countries depend not a little on access to the English market for the disposal of their growing manufactures; while many countries depend almost abjectly on the English market for the sale of their food-stuffs. Here, then, is at hand the proper engine for knocking a passage through European and American Tariff walls. Let us send round



our ultimata demanding ingress for our merchandise, intimating that refusal will be swiftly followed by the building of walls around our ports also. These would be no idle threats: we could carry them out to-morrow. To take one instance, where would the Dingley Tariff be if the English Government threatened to clap a prohibitive duty on American meat imports unless the United States Tariff on British textiles were promptly reduced to mere revenue point? Unless such action as this be taken the commercial supremacy of the British Empire will have to depend on some other security than that "most absolute freedom" which the Canadian Premier declares to be the only means of salvation.

ERNEST E. WILLIAMS.

#### HAS ANDRÉE FOUND THE POLE?

WHEN Andrée proceeded last year to his starting point in Spitzbergen, the public sceptically wondered what would happen. Unfortunately, the elements were against the gallant explorer. The wind refused to blow in the required direction, and nothing remained for him but to return. Then came a flood of criticisms: "He never meant going," "All a fiasco," and similar sentences, &c. Andrée now has the laugh of them all; for whether he succeeds in reaching his goal or not, whether he returns or dies in the attempt, no one can say that he did not mean to go. We are now anxiously awaiting the news of his safe return. Before these words are in print we may have full intelligence of the issue of the journey. But though there is reason to believe the venture will be successful, still it is an enterprise beset with dangers so many and various that we cannot feel quite at ease.

In one of the accounts of the start a statement is quietly made which if true would certainly be of the gravest importance to the successful issue of the expedition. It is said that the balloon soon after starting rose steadily to a height of *fifteen thousand feet*. But, on the other hand, even overlooking the difficulty of estimating such a height, a simple calculation will show that a balloon the size of Andrée's (170,000 cubic feet) could not lift to a height of 15,000 feet a greater weight than 6,000 lbs. And as the balloon with its car and fittings weighs more than this, such an ascent could only be possible if the whole of the ballast, provisions, boat and sledges, if not men, were thrown out. In which case it is not likely that the journey would have lasted more than a few hours. However, the whole affair is most improbable, and M. Machuron, probably the only practical balloonist who witnessed the departure, says that the balloon pursued its way at an even height of a few hundred feet above the water. Another rather alarming statement was to the effect that the guide rope had been left behind. It appears, however, that it was only a portion, and that plenty of spare rope was taken in the car. The action of the guide ropes, on which the aeronaut lays so much stress, may be shortly explained. A balloon, the "lift" of which is entirely dependent on the specific gravity of the gas contained within it, is necessarily a very delicately balanced instrument. A ray of sunshine, a puff of cold or warm wind, a touch of damp mist, all cause the balloon to rise or fall. Every rise above a certain height means an inevitable loss of gas, since the rarity of the air at a height causes it to increase in volume. It is therefore most essential in a long protracted voyage to keep the balloon at an even height above the ground. This the guide rope does. A long and heavy rope (Andrée uses several ropes) trailing along the ground keeps the balloon down, since, when the latter has a tendency to rise, it has to lift more and more weight of rope off the ground. On the other hand, as it sinks it is relieved of the weight of the rope. But there is also another use for the guide rope which is familiar to Andrée. A balloon floating in mid air is bound to go exactly with the wind and is thus differently situated to a ship, which can sail against the wind by utilizing the water as a fulcrum. But with a heavy rope trailing along the ground, a fulcrum can be obtained for steering the balloon, and in this way Andrée hopes to be able to guide his aerostat some 30° or more on either side of the wind course. He may thus not only avoid obstruction, but direct his way exactly to the Pole, even though the wind

be blowing several points off it. Thus at the start the wind was from the S.S.W., but by means of the guide rope the course taken was due north. And this is about all we know for certain, that a good start was made with a steady fresh wind. The pigeon message saying that the expedition had passed 82° is not of much more interest than so far as it informs us that a good start had been made. It would imply that some 140 miles had been accomplished out of the 700 to the Pole; but in reality it is the return journey wherein the great difficulty and doubt lie. Andrée hopes that his balloon will remain at least three weeks in mid air, but we have to consider that there is not much civilization within 2,000 miles of the Pole (except, perhaps, in Norway and Russia).

As it is supposed that a steady southerly wind blew for several days after the start, we get some idea of the probable progress of the expedition, though of course it can be but mere conjecture. The start was made on 11 July at about 2.30 P.M. The rate of progress was supposed to be about 22 miles an hour. If so, at about 8 o'clock that night they would pass the 82nd parallel of latitude, and then their pigeon was probably despatched. If progress was continued at the same rate the Pole itself should have been reached at about 9 o'clock in the evening of the 12th. We must bear in mind that, though the hour may seem rather late, broad daylight reigns in these Arctic climes. Well, if the journey was at once continued under similar conditions, the vast expanse of Polar ocean would be crossed and the northern coast of Alaska reached at about 2 P.M. on the 15th. But even then the journey is by no means at an end. Except for the Klondyke gold fields, there would not be much sign of civilization until another 700 miles of Alaskan wilderness had been passed, and the broad waters of the Pacific stretched away before them.

But if this wind which started from the south in Spitzbergen and continued towards the south of the Pole did not continue, and if we suppose that all went well with the balloon, she might drift about in any direction over the Polar area. An average wind is about twelve miles per hour, so that the balloon ought to be able to travel at least 6,000 miles in the three weeks, and it would be bad luck indeed if it was so persistently variable that the aerial craft would not be carried over more hospitable countries and a landing effected early in August. Even then the difficulties are not over. The world is a biggish place after all, and the explorers will be lucky if they land within 500 miles of a civilized place, and know their way to it. Imagine for a moment Great Britain divested of roads, bridges, and inhabitants, and suppose you were landed at John o' Groat's and had to find your way to London. It would be no easy task to carry your own food, blankets, and all supplies.

On the whole, then, even if everything went well, we need not be anxious about news till a couple of months at least have elapsed. As for the pigeons, they may be all very well when trained over well-known ground, but otherwise they are not very reliable messengers. During the siege of Paris, it may be remembered, out of about 300 pigeons sent out only some 50 returned. Glaisher in his great ascent released six pigeons from his balloon, of which only one turned up at home. Now these distances were all probably under one hundred miles, so that we can scarcely rely on much more news by pigeon post from the Pole.

B. BADEN-POWELL  
(Hon. Sec. Aeronautical Society).

#### THE BEST SCENERY I KNOW.

XI.

IT is the scenery of the white storm-petrel and gannet, of fishy cormorant and bright-billed puffin, of teeming seas and thankless pasture-land, its cattle poverty-stricken, its mines abandoned, its miners exiled to the burning bush. If it is, in all its moods, the best of scenery, I care not to ask; but the mighty Cornish foreshore that I have learned to love so well is at least alone of its kind.

The tameness of our Channel barrier ends abruptly west of Dorset. Thrown back by the white wall that,

for a brief spell, bids defiance to the sands of Calais, the rays of the westering sun fall on miles of insipid beach and sand, touching the red backs of Sussex cattle that graze in pastures scarce above sea-level, anon warming the poor little pine-clad mounds of Hampshire, and so, save for the brief protest of rock at Lulworth, to the Devon frontier. Then indeed come the red cliffs and broken walls that hurl back the encroaching waters; but Cornwall is to Devon as Snowdon to Primrose Hill. Black granite supplants the red sandstone, and the expectant "huer" may look down on the backs of gannets that soar at great altitude over the capricious shoals of whose movements the greedy fowl tell him so much. To the north lies the well-wooded hinterland of the Duchy, though its hilly nature precludes a sweeping view. And truly, the interest centres in the handshake of wave and rock. Foreshore, save at sandy interludes of the briefest, there is not so much as would, even at low water, give asylum to the smallest craft, and the boundary between land and water is so abrupt that the squat guillemot guards its egg on beetling ledges that overlook the nests of sticklebacks and hide from above the darksome retreats of the slimy octopus. Such scenery cannot well be considered apart from its birds. Gulls shriek unceasingly as the brown "Jack Hurry" forces from their bills the ket just seized from the water; green cormorants, exhausted by long dives for a hard-earned breakfast ere the day was fairly broken, spread their limp wings to the warming influence of the new-risen sun; old red-legged choughs hop after the early plough in grain-fields that stoop to the very edge of the surf; among the campion that overgrows the burrows of rock-rabbits are small singers of various merit.

In summer, the sea is, for this threshold of the broad Atlantic, mostly calm. That calmness of death, characteristic of some more Southern seas, has here no place; and there are few days, summer or winter, on which the white-maned "horses" are not racing merrily homeward over the fields of waving green beyond the Point. By day, the level green is broken by few craft, for the ingathering of the harvest is a deed of darkness, and not as a rule until the sun is failing behind the Manacle Land do the fifty red-sailed luggers creep sadly out of the little port, the leader shaping his course by the huer's gestures or the tactics of gannets and other fowl, to draw chances, a thousand fish or a million, in the hardest lottery ever floated for the torture of man.

As the darkness presently creeps over the wild bluffs and low beaches to find the sea-birds wailing drowsily on narrow ledges, the head-lights of the drifting fleet break one by one the gathering night, paling later in the great mystic glow of a summer moon that distorts the frowning headlands to such fantastic shapes, that one might well see in them the giants of old guarding, even in death, their last British stronghold. Silence is the music of this Cornish scenery, sadness its keynote; and so closely is it bound up with the character of its fisherfolk that it wears a different face on the seventh day, when the idle nets lie drying in the wind-swept fields, the fish roam undisturbed within cable-length of the quay and the fisherman hies him to his little chapel to writhe—innocent giant!—beneath the fierce tirades of youthful preachers, or to add his deep voice to part-singing that would not shame cathedrals. And, conversely, the character of the Spanish-faced, Protestant Celt is modelled on his native scenery. His very hope of a happier future is sombre as the winter outlook from his storm-beat eyrie. Life with him is ever sad, often passing tragedy.

So, under the magic touch of cloud and sunshine, is the aspect of the home in which his uneventful existence draws slowly to its close. In early summer, when the brown young gulls are mewing on every rock, when lambs frisk and stumble on steep green heights, and sleek porpoises tumble in the bay after the first mackerel, even then, with Nature's resurrection busy all around, there broods over all a sadness ineffable. In winter, with the young gulls grown white as the snow inland, the lambs no longer, the cold, grey waters abandoned of all life, yielding nought to the fishermen who shiver ashore for want of fuel, the silent landscape tries to shriek its wretchedness. Withal, strangely

beautiful, for it is apart from all else English! Rather of some hidden corner of Brittany, rather, indeed, of some mythical scene of bygone romance, savour those unflinching sea-walls behind which shrink the scant communities. No Britons are these folk, their face and language alike alien, exotic as their simple faith. Theirs a home of legend; by night strange monsters issue from the dank caverns, headless horsemen gallop o'er the scene of tragedies enacted in the dark ages. Cornwall, be the weather fair or froward, is just Cornwall, neither more nor less.

AYLMER POLLARD.

## XII.

I SHOULD be inclined out of a wide range of scenery in all parts of the world to give the palm to parts of Kashmir. In particular the Gilgit road after it leaves the Wular Lake and winds up the Rajdianjan Pass, eleven thousand feet above the sea, presents a series of most wonderful and sublime views. At the top of the pass you gaze down upon the emerald Vale of Kashmir, six thousand feet below, still in fancy haunted by the shade of the lovely Lalla Rookh, wandering through the ruined pleasaunces of the Mogul Emperors. You look into the glassy mirror of the Wular and see reflected the serrated peaks and eternal snows of the majestic wall of the Pir Panjal range which divides at Baramulla into dark frowning portals sternly guarding the exit of the Jhelun as it bids adieu to this garden of the gods and rushes down in its headlong course to the Indian plains.

Below the snows are lofty pine-woods. Below the pines, apple, pear, plum, apricot trees cover the undulating lower slopes called the Karéwa Land.

Further down like a broad lake stretches the valley itself, through which the river winds with many a shawl-pattern bend, and rests awhile at the wide turns under the grateful shade of the lovely Chenar trees.

In the middle distance you can see the junction of the cold white Sind river with the warm blue Jhelun at Gunderbal, whither the Maharaja of the realm has journeyed in state to perform his public prayers. Here kneeling on a white sheet he spends hours in confession and prayer, while by a beautiful legend the pure Sind water, fresh from the eternal snows above, is supposed to carry his sins away as it flows swiftly past to join its more sophisticated companion stream. Further off you can just descry through the blue haze the forts and pinnacles of Srinagar. To the left the hoary giant Haramuk, full seventeen thousand feet above the ocean, tosses up his majestic twin-glacial head above the sacred Gangebal Lake, the resort of thousands of pilgrims. To the east and north you are confronted by a perfect sea of mountains—the roof of the world—and over all in contemptuous grandeur, as though despising the dwarfish dimensions of his neighbours, each of whom is a Mont Blanc in stature, rises the divine summit of Nanga Parbat, twenty-seven thousand feet high—now, alas! the cemetery of the daring Mummery and his co-mountaineers.

At your feet the grass, fed by the melting snows of which vestiges remain, is a vivid green. Myriads of wild flowers of varied species and beauty reflect the brilliant sunlight. The air is keen and bracing like that of a Scotch moor, while as you descend from this Olympian throne you plunge into pine forests, and into a maze of gorges, waterfalls, glaciers, snow bridges, grassy slopes, romantic paths, and rocky rapids, mingled with semi-tropical vegetation, which form an unequalled galaxy of beauty.

The mountain scenery of Switzerland is often more picturesque than the Himalaya, and the lakes add a special feature of loveliness. The Alps of New Zealand, with their low snow-line and simplicity of structure, are more directly imposing. But for downright majesty and beauty combined the mountain and valley scenery of Kashmir has displaced all rival impressions in my mind.

Turning from grand to sweet and romantic scenery, the paradises of this earth may be typified by Kandy, with its lovely lake and Buddhist temple, its rhododendra-clad hills and its superb trees. Newera Elliya, four thousand feet higher, a perfect gem of a hill sanatorium; the valley of San José in California, with its oases and its pretty villas, and the promontory and bay



of Monterey, where the grand Pacific washes up to the trunks of the trees; the Wanganui river in New Zealand, with its vertical fernclad cliffs; the general scenery of Oahu and other Sandwich Islands; Samoa, with its wealth of tropical or rather equatorial vegetation; the Khasia hills in India, where under the influence of warmth and a big rainfall, silver and gold ferns line the paths and the deep gorges echo with the thunder of never-ceasing waterfalls; the uplands of Java, where the hills are clothed up to their summits with mantles of green forest, while the limpid air resounds with the notes of innumerable songbirds and is gay with gaudy butterflies.

Even grey old Arran of the Clyde, though it lacks the tropical glamour and fascinating accompaniments of vital beauty and movement, has a marvellous power of attraction. Its pines and purple heather, lofty granite domes and peaks, romantic glens, fantastic dykes, relics of ancient vulcan energy, and old sea beaches, render it a perfect microcosmic epitome of earth scenery, a treasure-house for the artist.

In Central Europe the Riesen and Jeschken Gebirge, the Thuringer Wald, and the Schwarz Wald of Germany, and their still somewhat primitive inhabitants, possess a peculiar attraction which affects you beyond all the elements of mere objective harmony.

These are some examples of the "best I know." If any one else can name anything which is better I shall be very pleased to know where it is to be found. Meanwhile I am content with what I have seen, though the memory of its contemplation rather spoils me for the Strand on a wet day.

DOUGLAS ARCHIBALD.

#### CHINESE FINANCE.

IF it be true that sound finance is the basis of all good government, China is in a parlous case, for the Chinese administration is corrupt to the core. From the President of the Imperial Council down to the smallest provincial official, no one is paid a "living wage"; and the natural consequence is that every one takes measures to remedy the defect. The evil is enhanced by the custom which surrounds every officeholder *in esse* or *in posse* with a crowd of relatives and sycophants who expect to accompany him and batten on his pastures. To look for internal reform under such conditions appears hopeless. The remedy must come from without, and Chinese need of money may enable European financiers to insert the thin edge of the wedge.

China wants money for two purposes. She owes Japan still some Tls. 95,000,000 (say £13,250,000), and she wants money to make railways. The conditions on which she can obtain it are the proffer of sufficient security or admission of foreign control. She is not hard pushed, as she has the option of paying off Japan by instalments, the last of which is not due till 1902; but she is notoriously anxious to forestall these dates if she can, and has been casting round in various directions for loans. Financiers are willing enough: there have been moments, indeed, when their eagerness to lend has seemed as great as China's eagerness to borrow. But this eagerness is, after all, conditional. Governments are willing to acquire the influence involved in a financial lien, and capital is always seeking investment. Occasionally the two combine, as in the case of the £15,820,000 which Russo-Chinese financiers lent China under Russian guarantee in 1895. It must not be forgotten, however, that the security in that case was good—a first lien practically (except for some £6,500,000) on the Customs revenue; and it is mainly because that security is nearly exhausted that late negotiations have hung fire. The ladies of England or France might still throw their jewels into the melting pot if the fatherland were fighting for life; but neither English nor Continental bankers will lend money to China without some plausible guarantee. And so it comes to pass that we hear of Li Hung-chang asking to be allowed to raise the tariff; of proposals to pledge the Land Tax, or the Salt Tax, or Lekin; and of frantic attempts by mandarins like Sheng—who has been made Director-General of Railways mainly on the strength of his financial promises—to borrow on little or no security at all.

In the course of an able and instructive report presented to Parliament last February, Mr. George Jamieson, H.M.'s Consul at Shanghai, assesses the Imperial revenue from all sources as follows:—

	Tals
Maritime Customs...	21,989,000
Land Tax ...	25,088,000
Salt Tax ...	13,659,000
Grain Tax ...	6,562,000
Lekin ...	12,952,000
Native Opium ...	2,229,000
Native Customs ...	1,000,000
Miscellaneous ...	5,550,000
Total ...	89,029,000

The seeming precision of the figures is seductive; but Mr. Jamieson is far from claiming for them greater accuracy than may pertain to assumption based on industrious research among documents—officially published, it is true, but which are known by both Chinese and foreigners to represent what mandarins wish to present, rather than fact. Precision is in fact unattainable; but approximation is sufficient for our purpose, which is to attain a conception, merely, of Chinese finance; and Mr. Jamieson's brochure affords the best available data on which to proceed.

It is well to realize at the outset that the Chinese Empire resembles that of a Charlemagne or a Charles Quint. The eighteen provinces are administrative units as large, each, as a European kingdom, and each is practically self-dependent, though the richer are required to help the poorer, and all have to contribute a certain quota to Peking. The supreme authority of a decentralized Empire does not of course require so much revenue as a highly centralized European State: still H.Tls. 89,000,000 (say £12,000,000) for the Imperial Treasury of a country as large as all Europe excluding Russia, is small; and of the Customs Revenue, which amounted last year to H.Tls. 22,579,000 (say, at the present rate of exchange, £3,010,000), very little remains after providing for the service of the debt.

Before the days of foreign treaties the Provinces collected their own Maritime as well as other dues; remitting a fixed sum yearly to Peking and keeping the balance. Theoretically they are supposed to receive back, now, a proportion of the collections which have been taken out of their hands; but it is to be feared that that arrangement, like many other Chinese maxims, has been honoured largely in the breach. Deprived of this resource, and subject to increasing demands from Peking, the Provincial Authorities invent new taxes or augment old ones in the shape of licences, octroi, or barrier dues which tend to defeat their own object by discouraging trade and promoting bribery or evasion. These are the taxes generically known as Lekin. They constitute, under present arrangements, one of the most nebulous, if one of the most prolific, sources of income. Mr. Jamieson assesses the sum which reached Peking in 1895 at Tls. 12,950,000. How much is really collected may be ranked as a problem with the number of stars in the Milky Way. Lekin has been named as a possible pledge for a further loan; but to purify it and make it valid as a security, the collection would have to be entrusted to foreigners as in the case of the Maritime Customs. This has indeed been suggested as one conceivable measure of reform.

The chief sources of Imperial revenue in China are similar to those in India, and comparison may be instructive. The area of the eighteen provinces may be taken roughly at 1,300,000 square miles. Mr. Jamieson—taking reports published from time to time in the "Peking Gazette" as his basis—estimates the Land Tax returned from that immense territory at Tls. 25,000,000. The area of British India, excluding the Native States, may be taken at 950,000 square miles; and the Land Tax for 1894-95 is returned at Rs. 250,000,000, or more than four times that sum. Yet China is certainly not less fertile than Hindustan, nor are the people poorer. The discrepancy is due to speculation, as Mr. Jamieson demonstrates by a *reductio ad absurdum*. He begins by excluding half the Empire as too poor to pay, and deals with 400,000,000 acres only as cultivable and capable of

bearing good crops. Taking the average tax on good rice land at  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a tael (say, 2s.) per acre, even this gives him a gross revenue of H Tls. 300,000,000, or twelve times the amount returned to Peking. Assuming, even, that a third of this area—and, mind, we have already excluded half the country—is non-taxable by reason of rebellion, drought, or other disaster, we are still left with Tls. 200,000,000. Assume, again, that the peasant pays on an average only half the rate named, and we still have Tls. 100,000,000. It is very doubtful, however, whether any Chinese who knew would admit that either assumption represents a fair basis of calculation. It is clear, at any rate, that the Land Tax alone could, by a very moderate process of rectification, be made to yield the Imperial Treasury a larger income than is now derived from all sources. But this means proper salaries, proper supervision, proper accounts; and every interest is arrayed against reform. China is said to have proposed the Land Tax as security for a loan. A beginning might perhaps be made, in that case, by appointing in each Intendancy a foreign inspector who would introduce some sort of accountability, and still be able to remit more than Peking now receives, even after paying interest on the additional debt!

The population of India, excluding the Native States, may be taken at 222,000,000. That of China cannot be stated with equal accuracy; moderate estimates assume 300,000,000. Yet the Indian Salt Tax yields Rs. 80,665,000, or say, Tls. 39,000,000—against China's Tls. 13,650,000. The total consumption of salt in India is about 34,590,000 maunds, say 25,327,000 cwt. The duty is Rs. 2.8 per maund, or say Rs. 3.4 per cwt.; while the average cost to the consumer is approximately Rs. 4 per 100 lbs., say 5s. 9½d. per cwt.\* China is divided, for the purpose of salt administration, into seven main circuits, each of which has its own source of production, and is forbidden, except under extraordinary circumstances, to send produce outside its borders. The salt is obtained—according to locality—by evaporation on the coast, or from brine wells inland. The original cost is said to vary from 3d. or 4d. to 1s. 6d. or 1s. 7d. a cwt.; while Mr. Jamieson estimates the retail price, by the time it reaches the consumer, at from 4s. to 10s.; say, an average of 7s. There is no restriction as to the amount of production, but all salt produced must be sold either to Government officials or licensed merchants; and what goes on may be inferred from the remark of a Chinese gentleman (quoted in the last Consular Report from Amoy)—that “if all the bamboos in China were made into pens there would not be enough to write the frauds the Salt Tax involves.”

The deficient yield is due, in the cases cited, to maladministration and corruption. A case where taxation is insufficient comparatively, and less positively than the article would bear, is native opium. The consumption is much greater than that of Indian opium, and an honestly administered excise might be made to yield a handsome return. But honest administration in China seems unattainable, except through foreign agency as a prelude to drastic reform. I do not mean international control of the kind that seems likely to be imposed on Greece, but the agency of foreigners employed by and subordinate to the Chinese Government, as in the case of the Maritime Customs. It is in that direction that the best hopes for China lie; and it is to be hoped that European financiers will use the leverage circumstances afford to insist on this condition before they advance another pound. Egypt is there to demonstrate what honest administration can effect, and the Customs service is there to show the Chinese that it can be accomplished without affecting their autonomy or executive control. Single-handed, almost, Mr. McLeavy Brown is by way of evolving order out of the chaotic finance even of Corea, without exciting a suspicion that he purposes usurping the royal power! Nor is it at Peking that the chief obstacles to employing foreigners in China would arise.

\* The comparisons are not rigidly exact. Comparison between a silver unit (the tael) whose exchange value is constantly falling and a coin (the rupee) which is rated 70 per cent. above its bullion value, through the medium of a third term (gold) which is constantly varying in relation to both, can only be put forward as an index to unfamiliar terms.

Writing on the state of trade in China, in a Report presented to Parliament last May, Mr. Consul Brennan says: “We are too tolerant of the *vis inertiae* which Chinese officialdom ever opposes to us when we try to advance in any direction. We fail to perceive that the perversity of the Chinese Government in continuing its suicidal methods is due to the utter selfishness and corruption of the ruling classes.” It is among these classes, who are taught to regard office as the prize of education, and spoil as the object of office, that the worst opposition to reform will be found.

R. S. GUNDRY.

## THE LATEST FROM SOUTH AFRICA.

(BY OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.)

BLOEMFONTEIN, ORANGE FREE STATE,  
11 July, 1897.

NOT long ago a group of young men were talking in Pretoria in a wild and foolish way about war, and President Kruger rebuked them. “But, President,” they said, “surely you would fight if you were attacked.” “Yes,” he said, “I would; but you are not talking of being attacked, but of attacking, and that is wrong. If I saw a lion—and the British Government is the lion—I would try to get out of his way; but if it were to attack me, then, with the help of God, I would defend myself, if I had only a penknife to do it with.” This speech exactly represents the feeling of most thoughtful men both in the Transvaal and in the Orange Free State. Rightly or wrongly, they believe that England intends to deprive them of their freedom, and they are putting themselves in a state of defence. They know that the contest would be an almost hopeless one; but they are prepared to enter into it rather than sacrifice their independence. As President Steyn said to me, “There is no place left for us to trek to, so we shall be obliged to resist to the last if we are attacked.”

In the Cape Colony most Englishmen will tell you that the naval demonstration at Delagoa Bay and the despatch of troops have had a calming effect, but I did not find that the Cape Dutch shared that opinion. On the contrary, they look upon both as an unnecessary menace, and here in the Free State the presence of the troops at Ladysmith has produced a closer union between the Free State burghers and their kinsmen in the Transvaal. It has produced such a feeling of unrest amongst the Boers on the Natal frontier that the President telegraphed to the Imperial authorities to ask why they are there, and he was informed that it is merely for purposes of defence.

Now to understand the Free State view of the matter one must put oneself in the position of a Free State farmer. He lives on an isolated farm, and has neither the means nor the inclination to follow politics day by day. He looks only to broad results, and is quite unable to discriminate between the Imperial troops now stationed at Ladysmith and the Chartered Company's troops under Imperial officers formerly stationed at Mafeking. He knows that the presence of those troops was followed by the Jameson Raid, and he cannot understand why troops should now be suddenly sent to Ladysmith unless for some similar hostile purpose. He himself never goes into commando unless immediate fighting is anticipated, and it seems to him absurd that the English Government can seriously believe that the Free State meditate an attack upon Natal, and that the troops are there merely to repel invasion. He feels, therefore, that he must be ready to repel an attack at any moment, and it disturbs him. If he could really feel sure that no menace were intended, he would welcome their presence because they afford a ready market for his produce, just as the troops did who were employed in the Basuto war; but the Raid has created a feeling of distrust. And Mr. Chamberlain's attitude ever since the beginning of the Committee of Inquiry has made it still more difficult for him not to be suspicious.

The inquiry, the Dutch say, if it were intended to be honest and sincere, should have been held as speedily as possible, and should have been directed solely to the responsibility for the Raid.



They believe that it was purposely delayed to enable Mr. Rhodes to regain the credit he had lost. They do not believe—at least the majority of those to whom I have spoken do not believe—that Mr. Chamberlain was implicated in the Raid himself, but that like so many others he was hoodwinked by Mr. Rhodes and Dr. Harris. His prompt action at the time it took place has satisfied them of that; but they believe that his pride has been hurt, and that he is so deeply piqued by the independent attitude assumed by President Kruger that he would not hesitate to force the Transvaal into war in order to justify his own conduct. This view is generally held by the Afrikaner Dutch whether in the Colony or in the republics; and let us consider for a moment if they have not some justification for it.

Mr. Rhodes has frankly confessed that he was Dr. Jameson's principal instigator and abettor, and, in one of his telegrams, sent while the success of the Raid was still uncertain (a telegram only just revealed, but known to Mr. Chamberlain, it must be remembered, many months ago), he said "Crusade will win and South Africa will belong to England."

The Free Staters hold that this telegram proves that Mr. Rhodes had designs not only against the Transvaal but against the Free State also. Nevertheless, he has been allowed to go unpunished and return to South Africa and become the leader there of an anti-Dutch faction. He was treated by the Committee with the utmost deference and respect, Mr. Chamberlain showing himself almost morbidly anxious to shield him from inconvenient and embarrassing questions. They say that all through its proceedings Mr. Chamberlain has constituted himself the apologist and defender of the Johannesburg reformers, and that he has gone out of his way to say bitter things about the Transvaal Government. His assertion that it is the most corrupt Government in the world has made a deep impression here, and will not readily be forgotten. It is not true, but even if it were true it was not a fitting time to say it. They resent, too, the cavalier treatment of Mr. Schreiner.

But it is not so much any particular act or speech that has caused the intense distrust and dislike of Mr. Chamberlain that I have found everywhere amongst the Dutch; it is rather his general attitude of dictatorial hostility. They feel that they were subjected to a great wrong by the Raid, and that instead of justice being done they have been misrepresented, and they are naturally bitter in their resentment. It is a pity that such a feeling should have been allowed to arise, for after the unhesitating measures he took at the time of the Raid Mr. Chamberlain had an unparalleled opportunity of obtaining the entire confidence of the Transvaal Boers; but by the overweening tone he has adopted he has thrown it entirely away, and they now distrust him so thoroughly that it will be difficult for them ever again to work in harmony with him. Mr. Chamberlain has done much to render more friendly relations impossible. Take, for example, his contemptuous assertion that he had never heard of arbitration between a suzerain Power and its dependency, although a short time before, in the matter of the immigration of Hindu coolies into the Transvaal, he had himself asserted that it would be a desirable method of settling the controversy.

It is the opinion of most people here that with a little tact and forbearance he might easily have obtained redress for the legitimate grievances under which the Uitlanders are undoubtedly suffering; but he has not gone the right way to work. In England people seem to forget that President Kruger is not an autocratic sovereign; that he has to obtain the consent of the Raad to what he wishes to have done; and that so long as the Raad is kept in a state of irritation by lectures upon technical and doubtful breaches of the Convention, it will become increasingly difficult for him to secure the enactment of remedial measures. Sentiment counts for much in dealing with nations, as our experience of Ireland ought to have proved to us.

The Transvaalers feel that they have become a powerful people, and they very naturally aspire to be free in the same way that the Orange Free State is free; that is to say, to be free from the allegiance within an allegiance which the implied suzerainty of the London Convention assumes.

I believe, from all I have been told, that the grievances of the Uitlanders would be far more speedily and effectually redressed by tearing up the Convention and entering instead into a treaty of amity and commerce, in which all idea of suzerainty or paramountcy should be abandoned, than by insisting upon a rigid adherence to the terms of a Convention which have been shown to be capable of conflicting interpretations. I am assured, upon the very best authority, that if the Transvaal Government were to be approached in that spirit of conciliation and trust, not only would a limited franchise be conceded, but that in all likelihood the Transvaal Government would be willing to join the South African Customs Union, and I am also assured that they would be quite willing to consent to an incorporation into such a treaty of a clause not to enter into any treaty with foreign Powers which might be deemed prejudicial to British interests.

Johannesburg is suffering from the commercial depression caused by the long-continued state of uneasiness: how greatly, an item in the recently published traffic returns of the Orange Free State railways will suffice to show. In January the through traffic to the Cape amounted to 17,214 tons, whilst in May it was only 12,796 tons, and I am told that Natal has suffered equally heavily.

It is clear, therefore, that Mr. Chamberlain's strong measures so far have been productive neither of tranquillity nor of prosperity. Would it not be wise to try another tack?

## MONEY MATTERS.

THE Bank Return this week showed increased strength, the reserve having risen by half a million sterling. As at the previous return there were signs that the Bank has sold stock extensively, Government securities having fallen by £562,500, whilst "Other" securities showed a decline of £922,970. Public deposits increased by £753,490, though other deposits fell away £1,706,922. In the Money Market rates were a little easier as the week advanced, the main cause being the decision of the Bank directors not to alter the standard rate and a recovery in the New York Exchange on London. Three months fine bills were discounted at  $1\frac{1}{8}$ , those for four months at about  $1\frac{1}{8}$  per cent., and those for six months at  $2\frac{1}{8}$  per cent. Short loans were arranged at  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. and loans for a week at  $\frac{3}{4}$  per cent. Business was very quiet.

Half the Stock Exchange is holiday making. Throughout the week the House presented a very empty appearance, and more members were to be found at the seaside and popular Continental resorts than in the precincts of Capel Court. Business was considerably handicapped, though markets were by no means without interest, the Indian troubles, the new complications in Eastern Europe, the bomb outrages, fear of dearer money and continued orders to buy and sell from the Continent and Colonies, all having tended to keep interest alive.

As regards gilt-edge securities the chief influence was the trouble on the Indian frontier, though the Money Market prospects continued to have their effect on these investments. Consols on Thursday afternoon were better than might have been expected considering all things, the price, 112 for money, and  $112\frac{1}{8}$  for the September account, having shown a fall of  $\frac{3}{8}$  on the week. Indian Threes at  $108\frac{1}{2}$ , and India Three and a Half per Cents at  $117\frac{1}{2}$ , marked merely fractional declines, but Rupee paper suffered from the continued decline in bar silver, and was quoted at  $62\frac{3}{4}$ , a fall of  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

Home Rails remained despondent. This department was practically under the same influences as the Consol market, though a temporary steadying was effected by one or two good traffic returns on Wednesday. Especially satisfactory was the Great Western increase of £10,180, which compared with an advance of £10,000 last year. The momentary improvement caused by these results on one or two of the Heavy Brigade was the one sign of rally during the week, and even in this case the gains were little more than frac-

tional. On balance changes were not important, the characteristic of the market having been utter neglect.

Far more interesting was the department devoted to Yankee Rails. The tendency on the whole was downward, though, except in the case of Illinois Central, which on Thursday showed a decline of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  at  $107\frac{1}{2}$ , declines were seldom more than half a dollar. Milwaukee and Northern Pacific Preference even showed rises. Declines were entirely due to profit taking and "bear" sales. The general belief prevails that the expansion in business and advance of price that distinguished these shares and bonds during the two previous weeks were only the commencement of a considerable boom. Shortage of stock exists on this side, so that a further advance may be anticipated unless operators in New York are satisfied with light prices. There was nothing to call for special attention among Foreign and Colonial Rails.

The continued fall in bar silver had its effect on Mexican Government securities. By Thursday the Six per Cents had fallen to  $92\frac{1}{2}$ , a decline of  $3\frac{1}{2}$  since Saturday; the 1893 Bonds had declined to  $90\frac{1}{2}$ , a fall of  $3\frac{1}{2}$ ; whilst the Internal Loan had fallen  $1\frac{1}{2}$ , to  $23\frac{1}{2}$ . Argentine 1886 Bonds and Funding Loan also showed considerable declines at 85 and 84 respectively. Otherwise there was little worthy of note in the Foreign Market, absolute idleness being the general characteristic.

Silver has again fallen heavily, and was quoted yesterday at  $24\frac{1}{8}d.$  The rupee is intrinsically worth, at that rate, about  $9\frac{1}{2}d.$ , yet it is quoted at  $1s. 3\frac{3}{4}d.$ , which is 70 per cent. above its bullion value. This is a scarcity value, indeed, and even those who have deliberately brought it about may feel a qualm at the extent of the divergence. Ever since the close of the Mints the rupee has till recently fluctuated in sympathy with silver; standing always at a premium, but rising or falling as the gold value of silver changed. We have now the opposite spectacle of the rupee rising while silver falls; and the "Times" argues contentedly that the divorce between the coin and the metal is complete. Experts in Indian exchange may hesitate to adopt the conclusion. They see silver on the one hand abnormally depressed by abnormal sales, and the exchange value of the rupee stimulated by a short supply of Council bills, while remittance by means of silver is practically prohibited in face of closed mints and lessened mercantile demand.

The fact that the new  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per Cent. Indian Loan of Rs. 30,000,000 has been allotted at an average rate of  $98\frac{1}{8}$ , whereas a 3 per cent. loan of Rs. 40,000,000 was issued last year at 103, is significant in presence of these considerations. It is not suggested that the Government credit has been affected. It would seem rather that a scarcity has been created so great that there are not sufficient rupees available to lend. If any be disposed to resent the suggestion, they may be invited to read a report in the "Statesman" of a recent meeting of the Calcutta Bank, at which it was remarked that money could not be borrowed at one period last year on Government paper at 10 per cent. Under ordinary circumstances many people in this country would be content to invest in an Indian silver loan at  $98\frac{1}{8}$ , but they may well hesitate to send out money for the purpose at the present high rate of exchange.

The financial position in Argentina remains in a very unsatisfactory state. The National Debt now stands at close upon £62,000,000, the bulk of which is external, and has an annual service for interest of £4,500,000, which is about 51 per cent. of the revenue. In addition must be counted the various provincial external debts, amounting to \$137,261,859 gold, equivalent to about £28,000,000 sterling, for which the national Government has been authorized to assume the responsibility. This debt involves a further expenditure of fully £1,000,000 per annum. The currency is in a phenomenally unsatisfactory condition, which involves a further heavy liability, and harvests for the past two seasons have been poor. If this year's crops turn out well, a crisis may be averted, but only for a time.

The country is suffering from the effects of long-continued bad government and too much borrowing of money that has been wasted, and no permanent improvement is likely to come about until the former of these disabilities is removed. When that will be, who shall say?

The South African Mining Market saw many ups and downs of fortune between Saturday and Friday. On Saturday there was a general decline, and the market at times was actually panicky. Prices closed on Saturday at the worst, and on Monday morning the declines were continued without abatement until lunch-time. Then came news that the leading members of the Rand Committee and President Kruger favoured the Mining Commission's Report. Tuesday opened with declines, followed by advances; but business on that day was quieter and fluctuations less marked. On Wednesday the position was exactly reversed. Opening with a healthy tone, on news of a rich strike at the Randfontein mine a reaction followed on realizations. On Thursday a fairly steady tone prevailed, but business was on a very limited scale. On balance prices did not show much important change on Thursday as compared with Saturday's closing. Chartered were  $\frac{1}{2}$  better at  $3\frac{1}{2}$ . Goldfields Deferred at  $5\frac{1}{8}$ , East Rands at  $4\frac{1}{2}$ , Rand Mines at  $30\frac{3}{8}$ , Barney Consols at  $2\frac{1}{2}$ , and New Primrose at  $4\frac{1}{8}$  were all  $\frac{1}{8}$  to  $\frac{3}{8}$  down. Diamond shares steered an independent course of their own, De Beers showing a gain of  $\frac{1}{16}$ , at  $28\frac{1}{2}$ , and Jagersfontein a loss of  $\frac{1}{8}$ , at 9.

It is not necessary to go far to find the explanation of the momentary slump in the South African Market. The upward tendency is still strong, but it served the purpose of the big houses to depress the market, so that they could come in again at a lower figure. The trick is as old as the hills, but it seldom fails amongst the panic-stricken sheep who do business in the Stock Exchange. The big houses will do it again and again; but if they do not take care they will do it once too often, and will disgust buyers with the London Market. After all, London is not the only place in the world where shares can be bought and sold, and if wealthy operators play tricks of this kind with the market too frequently, buyers will go elsewhere. The ostensible reason for the slump was the diminished output of the Rand mines in July, which was less by some 9,000 ozs. than the output for June. The falling off, however, was almost entirely in two or three mines, principally the Robinson and Modderfontein. The other mines have all kept up their record profit, and some, like the Crown Reef, have notably increased their production. All the mines we have recommended have gone up. Second-rate mines have had a bad time; but the good ones will maintain their position, and at the next account we have no doubt they will go up again.

More attention was directed to Westralian shares than was the case during the previous week. For a long time the market on this side has been following in the wake of Adelaide, and prices consequently ruled below those in Australia. The position now is so completely changed that orders from the Colony, in many cases, cannot be executed at the limits given. Prices were as a rule lower on the week, but fluctuations were in no case of much importance.

During the past week Mount Lyell Mining and Railway Company shares have practically monopolized attention in the Miscellaneous Mining Market. On Thursday the price jumped from 13 to  $13\frac{1}{2}$  on extensive buying on behalf of a certain influential firm connected with the South African Market. It is said that these people are anxious to get control of the Company chiefly with a view to splitting the shares from £3, their present denominational value, into 5s. shares. The property of the Mount Lyell Company is in Tasmania. Copper is the chief product, but silver and gold are also to be obtained. For the twenty-seven days ended 28 July the return showed that a total quantity of 6,068 tons of ore had been treated. For the same period "converters produced 468 tons converter matter, containing copper 463 tons, silver 46,940 oz., and gold 1,946 oz."



If we have felt it our duty to warn English investors against reckless investment in Klondyke companies, we would point with still greater misgivings to enterprises organized in the United States. According to very respectable evidence a sum of no less than \$164,512,500 has been reached as regards capitalization. Most of the schemes emanate from New York, but Chicago and San Francisco also have their share. Three of the New York companies have capitals of \$5,000,000, whilst a transportation and mining company being formed in Chicago is to have a capital fixed at no less than \$100,000,000. The Ardahe-Healy-Yukon Klondyke Mining Company, another Chicago enterprise, has a capital of \$25,000,000 and has already sent 500 persons to the goldfields. This evidence of capital comes from what should be a reliable source, but even allowing for a little Yankee exaggeration the boom must have reached enormous proportions in the States. To those who realize the true conditions at Klondyke there is an element of pathos in it all.

Talking of Klondyke reminds us that Newfoundland is well in the running for a boom. Both in England and America attention has lately been drawn to the neglect of the internal resources of that country ever since it first came into the hands of the English some four centuries ago. Dr. Wilfred Grenfell, Superintendent of the Royal Deep Sea Mission to Labrador Fishermen, has spent many years of his life on the coast of Newfoundland, which he has studied as very few others have had the opportunity to do. He points out that years ago a new railway was started, and it is only since then that a journey across Newfoundland has been possible. Vast mineral wealth has been discovered. Gold has been found both in the south near Cape Broyle and in the north near Cape John. There is also an abundance of copper, silver, nickel, lead, asbestos, and other minerals.

Mr. E. T. Hooley has been much in evidence this week. On Monday a statement appeared in the "Times" to the effect that there had been signed on behalf of the Chinese Government a preliminary agreement with the Hooley-Jameson Syndicate for a 5 per cent. loan of £16,000,000 sterling, to be issued at 95. On being interviewed Mr. Hooley said he knew nothing beyond what appeared in the published telegrams. He thought the telegrams to be probably correct, and presumed that a message had been sent to his colleague in the matter, Major Jameson, M.P. It seems an enormous scheme to carry through, but as Mr. Hooley seems anxious to secure the loan for the benefit of English trade, one must wish him every success in his endeavours. The idea at present is to spend £8,000,000 on the railway connecting Hong-Chau, Lu-Chau and Shanghai. The other £8,000,000 is to be treated as Government loan.

Should he secure the loan, Mr. Hooley has promised to use every effort to secure that every penny of the money shall be spent on English goods with English firms. It is to be feared that few people realize how very important it is that this should be so; for China, if developed, would prove an enormous opening for British manufactures. English success in this quarter would encourage our enterprise in other parts of China, especially the South-Western Provinces, where it is said there are great possibilities.

The striking feature of the statistics of bankruptcy issued this week is the fact that the estimated loss to creditors in 1896 was less than that of any previous year for which figures are available. The receiving orders in the twelvemonths numbered 4,153, and represented liabilities amounting to £5,902,138 and assets amounting to £2,334,251. The loss to creditors works out at £4,334,943, due to the interesting fact that the costs and the loss on realization amount to 33½ per cent. of the assets. The cases which came under the Deeds of Arrangement Act numbered 3,271, for liabilities amounting to £4,479,883, with assets totalling £2,338,707 and an estimated loss to creditors of £2,920,745. These figures tell a tale that is indicative of a steady improvement in commercial morality. It is

satisfactory to note further that the number of heavy failures—those with liabilities in excess of £20,000—continues to decrease. This applies both to ordinary trading and to financial and speculative enterprise, the decline in the latter being especially marked. This last class of failure is the one which usually presents the worst features. In several instances last year, as in most years, the default was the outcome of reckless dealings with money entrusted for a definite purpose, but directed to other ends.

## NEW ISSUES, &c.

### THE DULL SEASON.

The months of August and September are known among promoters and advertising agents as the dull season, and this year is not proving an exception to the rule. Few flotations are in prospect during the next few weeks, and those that are contemplated are in rare instances of much importance. The most important is the Argus Insurance Company, which is to have a capital of half a million, and the Board of which will contain some influential persons. Then there is the British Columbian and Klondyke Pioneering Corporation, the prospectus of which is being rapidly completed. Another piano business is also to be converted and floated in London, though the works are situate at Liverpool. As regards the last, we hear that the capitalization will be heavy.

### PNEUMATIC TYRE COMPANIES.

Under the title "The Amalgamated Pneumatic Tyre Companies, Limited," a long promised flotation has made its appearance. The Company has been formed by arrangement with the Dunlop Company to unite into one business the following pneumatic tyres: the "Beeston," the "Turner," the "Woodley," and "Scott's Standard." These tyres will have distinctive features from the tyres made by the Dunlop Company, but are made under the Dunlop and Welch patents. The share capital of the Company is £1,000,000, in £1 shares, and there is in addition £300,000 debenture stock paying interest at the rate of 5 per cent. The prospectus contains details of sales and profits of the different businesses during the last few years.

### KLONDYKE PIONEERS.

Although the Klondyke, Yukon, and Stewart Pioneers, Limited, has been severely criticized in certain quarters, it seems quite as respectable as most of the Klondyke companies that have made their appearance recently. The capital is £206,000, in 200,000 Ordinary shares of £1 each and 6,000 Pioneer shares of £1 each. The Company is formed to trade, prospect and acquire, and an expedition is already being fitted out by Colonel Domville, a Canadian member of Parliament. There is very little other information in the prospectus, though a fly-leaf is inclosed on which are dished up all the well-worn press effusions about Klondyke generally. The public are asked to purchase 100,000 Ordinary and 1,000 Pioneer shares.

### THE NEW GOLDEN TWINS.

The New Golden Twins is an undertaking that is shortly to be planted on the confiding public, and concerning it we have to repeat the warning we have already given with regard to a number of promotions arising out of the gold rush to Canada. The New Golden Twins is the offspring of the Klondyke and Columbia Goldfields, Limited, a concern which was floated at the beginning of the month with the vaguest possible prospects. The New Golden Twins has a capital of £90,000 in £1 shares, and is paying £60,000 for a property in the Rainy River district of Ontario. The prospectus prints as a heading a phrase from an engineer's report stating that the mine is "capable of paying very large dividends on an equally large capital"; but when we turn to the report itself we find that the statement is qualified by the important proviso: "should the ore improve on development." Concerning both this undertaking and its parent we could use much stronger language if we cared to do so. The promoter is a Mr. Moses Catton, who is known to investors for certain recent bread and boot promotions.

## PURIRI GOLD MINES.

The Puriri Gold Estates, Limited (Hauraki Goldfields, New Zealand), has an advisory board in New Zealand which includes two members of the Waihi Gold Mining Company. The secretary of the latter has hastened to explain that there is no connexion between the two companies, so that it will be well if admirers of the Waihi Company do not invest under a delusion. Little need be said of the Puriri Company. The capital is £175,000, divided into £1 shares. The first object of the enterprise is to acquire a property in the Hauraki district of 225 acres, for which the sum of £145,000 in cash and shares is to be paid. This seems a long price, and unless more substantial reports on the property than are at present published can be obtained, it will be a preposterous sum to part with. As regards most of those reporting on the property, they write as though they had never been near the place. One refers vaguely to the work of a party known as Hogg and Gillans as far back as 1891 and 1892. He ingenuously adds: "I have only a few notes of the gold then won." It is impossible to believe that the public will swallow a prospectus so imperfectly-baited.

## A CAMBERWELL MUSIC-HALL.

The Oriental Palace of Varieties, Limited, is issuing 20,000 Six per Cent. Preference shares of £1 each. The Company was originally formed last year with a capital of £45,000, including the above Preference shares and 25,000 Ordinary shares of £1 each. It is now stated that the directors have acquired and paid for a site at the corner of Denmark Hill and Daneville Road, Camberwell, and the present issue is being made in order to erect and complete a music-hall to accommodate 2,000 people.

## A FLOOR-SCRUBBING COMPANY.

The Industrial Acquisition and Development Company, Limited, of 81 Cannon Street, E.C., is singularly thoughtful for others! It has been busy during the last week or two circulating an "advance" prospectus of the "Gee Floor-Scrubbing Machine Company, Limited" among a number of persons previously ignorant of such an institution as the Industrial Development Company. With this document is enclosed a type-written letter in which the recipient is advised to send an application for shares on or before the 19th inst., as after that date it may be impossible to allot except at a premium. By such patent artfulness does the wily promoter attempt to lure the innocent investor to his spider's web! Not altogether inexperienced in company matters, we doubt very much whether the shares of the "Gee Floor-Scrubbing Machine Company" will ever be at anything like a premium. The prospectus is very weak. The capital of this automatic charwoman Company is £75,000, divided into £1 shares. Its object is to acquire the rights of a floor-scrubbing machine, of which no adequate description is given. As the Directors have nothing more to offer than a vague invention, they have filled the remainder of the prospectus with optimistic estimates for which there does not seem a shadow of justification. Equally unjustified is the impudent suggestion that the Company will very "likely" receive £40,000 for the American rights. It is on the strength of this prospectus that the Industrial Acquisition and Development Company, Limited, ask the public for £50,000 purchase consideration. Surely the most stupid investor will draw a line at so preposterous a suggestion.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

## "DISTURBANCES ON THE INDIAN FRONTIER."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

LORDSWOOD, SOUTHAMPTON, 18 August, 1897.

DEAR SIR,—You have asked me to let you know whether I consider the events now taking place on the borders of Bunnoo and Peshawur are the result of our frontier policy.

In my judgment I consider them to be the natural

outcome of the provocative policy pursued of late years by the Government towards the independent tribes, culminating in the reversal by the existing Government of the orders issued by the Government of Lord Rosebery for the withdrawal of Her Majesty's troops from Chitral and from the road leading to it through the territory of Swat and Bajour.

An unsound policy—and NOT A "MAD MOOLLAH"—is at the bottom of the present uprising.

Any one who will care to read what I wrote to the "Times" and to you about the time that the operations to relieve the garrison of Chitral were going on will clearly understand what was my opinion in those days; and they will be able to decide for themselves whether my frontier experience and knowledge of the tribesmen guided me to a right conclusion.—Yours faithfully,

NEVILLE CHAMBERLAIN, General.

## CORRUPTION IN INDIA.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

11 July, 1897.

DEAR SIR,—I noticed in your issue of 12 June a letter signed by B. C. S. (retired) on the subject of Police Corruption in India. How often one does hear of police corruption, as if it was a wonder and the only corruption existing in India! It is a marvel to me how any retired civilian can write about police corruption when, if a civilian of long experience, he must be perfectly aware that in these days it is largely the result of native magisterial corruption, which is rife to a degree that people in England do not dream of, and which is fast becoming a fruitful source of popular discontent with English rule.

We see men of position in England urging Government to employ natives more largely in high offices in the public service, utterly ignorant, apparently, that the majority of those natives who pass out of our colleges are quite devoid of moral character in such points as taking bribes. In more than one province that I know well I have good grounds for believing that a large majority of the native magistrates are habitually corrupt, and with regard to a third province, the Punjab, a barrister for the prosecution, in the trial of a native magistrate for corruption lately, expressed regret that Government was prosecuting only a very clumsy practitioner like the accused, when there are so many other native magistrates equally guilty but more clever, and so able to defy conviction.

We have seen four native magistrates within the last eight months convicted in Criminal Courts of habitual corruption; is it therefore a matter for wonder that, with his immediate superior officer, the native magistrate, openly guilty of such practices, the subordinate police officer who has the same weakness of moral character should not hesitate to do likewise? It is extremely difficult to convict native magistrates of corruption, even though every native resident in his jurisdiction knows—as they never fail to do—that he is corrupt.

In former years European collectors at the head of districts were old officers of twenty years' and more service, who were more in touch with the natives than the present boy collectors, and were able by personal influence to show a native magistrate known to be corrupt that they were aware of their conduct, and so, in a great measure, they were able to keep it in check; but nowadays, with young officers of only a few years' experience as collectors, with little sympathy with the natives and less leisure from the daily grind of office work, even that small check is abolished, and corruption is now more rife in the native magistracy than probably India has ever seen it.

The police make their pile also, but they do it at very considerable risk, and get not, perhaps, one rupee to the magistrate's thousand.

Take the following instance of the perfect immunity from risk enjoyed by the Civil officials—a district is divided into certain subdivisions, over each of which is a native Civil officer or magistrate who also collects the revenue of the subdivision. Each village sends its rent to him at fixed dates, say twice a year, and pays besides the Government demand the sum of 2, 3, or 4 rupees, according to the size of the village, as a *douceur*, knowing that if it is not paid trouble of some sort will



come on the village from the said official or his myrmidons, whose power is very great. As there are often 3,000 villages or more in such subdivisions, the illicit profits are considerable, and the officer shares them with his three or four office subordinates to keep them quiet. Should any village attempt to kick against this exaction, the following dodge is resorted to—the subordinate officer who receives the money has always two or more counterfeit rupees about his person; these rupees he cleverly substitutes for others in the rent cash, and then in the usual process of counting and testing the money of course detects the bad rupees. Should the individual paying in the money declare his money was all good and attempt to remonstrate, he is at once threatened with being handed over to the police for trying to pass counterfeit coin, and he, like a wise man, promptly pays up to replace the bad rupees. This goes on in the same premises where the police also are located, and is a custom well known to all of them; they see large sums netted thus with no risk at all—is it therefore any wonder that the police try to imitate their example? To show the systematic way in which corruption can be carried on, I give the following instance that was detected whilst I was in the service. The European Collector's Head Reader, who sits on the ground near the Collector in Court, is believed by the village public (rightly in many cases I admit) to have great influence with the Collector; he, trading on this belief, is able to make large profits. The individual I refer to employed two bankers, A and B, and this was his procedure. When a plaintiff in a case to be tried by the Collector came to this Head Reader and offered a certain sum to induce him to use his influence with the Collector in his favour in the trial, he the plaintiff was directed to deposit the offered bribe with banker A, the agreement being that if plaintiff won his case the deposit was to be left with the banker at the Reader's credit, but if he lost his case the deposit was to be refunded to plaintiff at once by the banker. Similarly when the accused in the case came to make a like arrangement the Reader referred him to banker B with the same agreement. It thus was a perfect matter of indifference to the Reader which side won; he received the deposits of the winning side, and the losing party, getting back his money, had no grievance against the Head Reader, who thus made his pile with complete impunity.

Times have somewhat altered since that custom was rife, and Head Readers and other small fry make now comparatively very little, because the majority of minor cases being now tried by corrupt native magistrates, parties make terms with the native magistrate himself direct or with his go-between, who is generally a trusted relation, appointed for such transactions. It is idle in these days to talk of police corruption; let Government and its well-wishers first cast out the beam in the Civil eye and then they can deal with the comparatively little mote in the police eye.

It is an undoubted fact that corruption has been largely on the increase amongst native officials of late years, and will, unless the present law is modified to check it, eventually make English rule intolerable to the masses, entirely neutralizing all good effects that would otherwise be produced by our benevolent measures in dealing with famine, plague and other evils.—  
Yours truly, SENEX.

### THE SEPOY REVOLT.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

16 August, 1897.

SIR,—Your correspondent "Veteran" is quite correct in his comment, in your issue of the 31st ultimo, on the change in my account of the cartridge business. Originally it conformed to the story given in the recognized works on the subject. But a thorough examination of Mr. Forrest's authoritative volume and subsequent discussion have led to the conclusions which I have latterly stated. That volume shows that formal investigations were held immediately; but, in spite of all the evidence taken, no proof seems ever to have been given of impure ingredients having been used, though there was proof of sufficient laxity to admit of their being possibly used without detection.

The Lascar who taunted the Sepoy does not appear to have been examined, and the taunt was sufficient to alarm the Sepoy and his comrades. The real blunder lay in allowing the use of animal fat at all. Other materials were available of equal efficacy as lubricants.—  
Yours faithfully, J. MACLEOD INNES.

### WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

CARDIFF, 29 June, 1897.

SIR,—May I supplement Prof. Silvanus Thompson's able and exhaustive article on the above subject? In the conduction method which he has described, the length of the base line is only one of the factors determining the distance to which signals can be transmitted. The distance depends:—

1. Directly on the lengths of the base lines.
2. Directly on the area of surface in contact with the wireless conductor.
3. Inversely on the resistance of the generator employed.

There is also a fourth condition—namely, that the initial pressure of the generator shall be as low as possible, within certain limits.

With a generator of very low electromotive force, and infinitely low resistance—or, in other words, able to deliver a current of infinite strength—it should be possible to transmit signals, across a body of water, or other similar conducting mass, to an infinite distance. Four years ago, with the assistance of two of my pupils, I made an exhaustive series of experiments on this matter; and was so far successful that my assistants were able to transmit speech, spoken words, across the river Taff at Llandaff Bridge, without wires, and with the ordinary telephonic apparatus. As I understand the matter, the three methods Prof. Thompson describes, are really only varying forms of the same thing, electric waves sent into space, and operating apparatus of different kinds, that lie in their path, according to their varying form. The waves employed in the various methods differ only in their length and rate of transmission; the conduction method employed comparatively long, slow-moving waves, while the waves employed in Hertz-Lodge-Marconi method are very short and move very rapidly. The media in which the waves travel rule their form.

Looked at from another point of view, that of the practical electrical engineer, the conduction method employs continuous currents of very low tension; the other methods employ induced alternating currents of very high tension. In the conduction method also, as I understand the matter, you have currents passing, not only between the opposing plates which are in the water, but by an infinite number of other paths, forming curves to which the base line on the generator side is always a chord, and which form parts of the circumferences of circles whose radii become smaller as they recede from the generator base line. The receiver base line forms a chord to one of these curves. On each of the curves there is a regular fall of pressure, so that whether a signal is received or not merely depends on whether a sufficient pressure exists between the two points on the receiver base line to work the receiving apparatus. Electrical engineers are now accustomed to look upon a solid rod of metal as made up of an infinite number of infinitely small rods of similar length, each of which takes its own part in the operations of conduction, induction, &c. Similarly, a body of water, such as that lying between Penarth and Weston, may be looked upon, for the purpose of the conduction method, as composed of an infinite number of streams of water, of infinitely small section, all ending in the metal plates that dip into the water and all conveying their own currents.

At first sight, the method Mr. Preece has now introduced would appear to be the best for lighthouse purposes, but a little consideration leads one to doubt if only signals of the Morse code are required. If communication is to be effective, both sending and receiving apparatus must be present in the lighthouse as well as on shore. Would not a single galvanic cell of large dimensions, such as can be easily made with the adjuncts of a simple tapper key and telephone re-

ceiver be more easily maintained by the lighthouse-keepers than the somewhat formidable array of apparatus used by Signor Marconi. I agree with Prof. Thompson that the methods, all of them, are capable of very wide extension, and I believe that many of us now living may see the Atlantic bridged by wireless telegraphy.

Yours very truly, SYDNEY F. WALKER.

#### "KAFFIRS" AND WIREPULLING.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

LONDON, 19 August, 1897.

SIR,—We are now approaching the end of another settlement, a settlement which has every appearance of marking down prices in all classes of South African securities. It seems that the public are not to be allowed the sweets of a profit on their purchases for more than one account, and if one were to ask the average speculator the reason, he would probably put it down to the vagaries of the "Stock Exchange." But it is time the public had its eyes opened to the real cause of the fall and rise in Kaffir shares. Many reasons are given, mostly wrong ones. One day it is some European trouble, and another day a difficulty on our frontier, and another a return from the Rand which is not considered satisfactory that is said to depress the markets; but surely a man of sense would not believe that these reasons would seriously affect a whole market. The latter reason (undoubtedly the most serious when analysed) amounts to nothing. In July there was a lesser output of 9,000 ounces than in June, and this was accounted for by two mines, one of which has £1,000 more cash profit. Surely this is not a reason to cause South African securities to fall from 5 to £3. No, we have to look nearer home. The fact is the big financiers want to have everything their own way, and while they know that the intrinsic value of such shares as Rand Mines, Ferreira's, Heriots, Crown Deep, Henry Nourse, &c., are far below their real intrinsic value they would keep them at their present price with one object only—that they and their friends may depress them still further, and, having done so, buy them back at the expense of the public that has been frightened out. Surely this game of squeezing has gone on long enough, and it is time for the financier to pause and consider whether he had not better give his patient breathing time. There are other markets besides the South African, and the time will come when the honest speculator will become so heartily sick of the antics of the wirepuller that he will retire from the contest altogether and pay his court where his addresses will be better received. In fact, the public will take the bull by the horns and make its own market in other affairs where it cannot be outweighed by a preponderance of wealth.

There are other markets ready to welcome the speculator with open arms. The Australian, the Home Railway, the American and the newly formed Columbian. If any one asked the wirepuller to find his reason for the fall, he would say it is a weak bull account. But let us see what this is. It is surely a misnomer. There are plenty of men with money who are ready to and who do speculate in shares, but so long as a man is able to pay his differences and, if rates are too heavy, to take up his stock, he cannot be called a weak bull.—Yours, &c. STOCKBROKER.

#### MILITARY PRISONS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

16 August, 1897.

SIR,—The Inspector-General's interesting report on Military Prisons not only officially confirms most of my facts and figures, while disproving none, but is also, as to reforms in progress and promised, a practical commendation of the views expressed in my book. I instance: The abolition of shot-drill as part of hard labour sentences; institution of squad drill and physical exercises; later hour for "lights out," instead of sending a grown-up man to bed at a quarter-past eight, like an infant; greater facilities for reading, and variety of work. Captain Stopford entirely corroborates my statement on one important point, frequently denied by opponents who stigmatize all military prisoners as

"blackguards," "bad characters," &c. I quote par. 17, p. 9, of report:—"Since 1881, however, the Army Act has contained a section providing that . . . committals to military prisons should be restricted to offenders of the (b) or mere breach of discipline class. This latter . . . mainly comprises young soldiers in the initial stages of their career (par. 18). The criminal element having been thus eliminated."

Captain Stopford supports another theory of mine by par. 22, p. 10, wherein he recommends an extension of the principle of substituting governors for chief warders. Permit me to cull from his pages an object-lesson in no sense theoretical. On p. 27 occur the following details of the military prison at Cairo under a chief warder's charge (1896):—

Number of prisoners	...	...	401
" " punished	...	...	224
" " prison offences	...	...	903
" " punishments	...	...	907
" " prisoners flogged	...	...	5
or one in 44·8 of all punished.			

Note particularly, (I)—In one single prison, with only 401 prisoners, occurred *one-third of all the floggings* in our sixteen military prisons in the United Kingdom and abroad (exclusive of India); yet among the 903 offences not one can be set down, even by the severe prison code, as "violent." All were "idleness" or "breaches of prison discipline." (II)—Why, also, such an enormous percentage of offences and punishments? Contrast roughly the prison at Aldershot where, with 2,128 prisoners, there were only 386 offences, but 109 punishments, and no floggings at all. Surely any reasonable man, while admitting that chief warders may be good soldiers and good citizens, must doubt whether, in the face of such a record, they make good governors.

Captain Stopford furnishes us with further matter for reflection in certain figures which I have found it interesting to extract from his general tabular record for the year ending 31 December, 1896.

—	No. of Prisoners	Prison Offences	Dietary and other Punishments	Floggings
Prisons (4) controlled by governors ...	3,569	980	592	3*
Prisons (12) controlled by chief warders ...	3,752	2,892	2,725	12†

\* That is, one prisoner flogged in 1,856.

† That is, one prisoner flogged in 312.

I have long striven to impress on the public mind that an offence is not more heinous because it happens to be committed within prison walls; rather less so, because such surroundings are—unavoidably—trying to mind and body. Captain Stopford has carefully instructed us that the criminal element has been completely eliminated from military prisons. Even so-called "violent" prison crimes are by no means necessarily assaults, except on furniture or by the tongue; and of these, out of 3,872 offences of the year, there are only twenty-two—a fact which speaks well for the prisoners. Is, then, the absurdly large proportion of penalties instanced at Cairo—and always possible under the present system, for slight faults—and the darker shadow of the lash, to (I quote Captain Stopford again, p. 9) form part of the "provision for the physical and mental development of these young soldiers"?

I regret that the Inspector-General's provisions—humane, as far as they go—do not extend to our Indian Empire. Things are bad enough in the Colonies, where this is the record: one man flogged in 296; in the United Kingdom, one in 872. But I greatly fear that, when the search-light of public opinion is turned on the East, there will be discovered too obvious and painful reason for certain rumours which are afloat, and for the persistent reticence of the authorities.

Is Captain Stopford—the official protector of the rights as well as the discipline of military prisoners—content, in the year of grace 1896, to have Her Majesty's soldiers flogged at the rate of one in 488, when the last official record of civil prisons, which includes the vilest offenders, is one in 2,166? That is, 4·44 admittedly *not* criminal soldiers, flogged for every one criminal civilian. Yours faithfully, E. LIVINGSTON PRESCOTT.



## REVIEWS.

## ARNOLD OF RUGBY.

"Arnold of Rugby: his School Life and Contributions to Education." Edited by J. J. Findlay, M.A. With an Introduction by the Lord Bishop of Hereford. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1897.

THIS is a volume which well deserves the careful attention of all who are engaged in teaching. It may be regarded as supplementary to the late Dean Stanley's Life of the famous Headmaster of Rugby. Stanley's object was to give us a picture of Arnold as a man and in his various relations to work and life; but Mr. Findlay's object is to deal with him as a schoolmaster. An interesting Introduction by the Bishop of Hereford, one of Arnold's successors at Rugby, justifies, perhaps somewhat unnecessarily, the publication of the book, and points out the importance of Arnold's example and message to the present generation. "His real position," says the Bishop, "is not so much that of a schoolmaster as of a prophet among schoolmasters, a man whose special mission it was to unveil and interpret the higher possibilities, responsibilities and duties of the schoolmaster's life." This is admirably said, for it exactly indicates Arnold's precise place among educationists, as well as the secret of what constituted his power when he was alive and what constitutes his claim to serious consideration now. As a teacher he had many defects; he was often irritable and impatient; he had not much tact; he had not much insight into character; he could neither divine nor understand the limitations of the average schoolboy, and consequently he was often unreasonable and sometimes even unjust. He constantly mistook sensitiveness and timidity for apathy and stupidity, and did much wrong and caused much pain by his want of discernment. Few, it is true, could excel him in vitalizing a subject—notably history and divinity—for pupils who had already been thoroughly grounded and were really intelligent; but he had no marked power of imparting knowledge, and to the drudgery of rudimentary teaching he was wholly unequal. His scholarship was, even for the time at which he lived, singularly inexact and imperfect. His general attainments were not considerable—certainly not above the average. Of the fine arts and of physical science he knew nothing and desired to know nothing. He had no taste for the Greek tragedians and something very like contempt for Catullus and the Elegiac poets. He was, indeed, signally deficient on the æsthetic side. Dean Stanley and his other admirers have very naturally not cared to dwell on these defects, and, if they have not ignored, have more than half disguised them.

But Arnold was a man who can afford to have the whole truth told about him: he is not one of those personalities who gain either in picturesqueness or in reputation by being presented in half-lights. In moral grandeur—the term is not too strong—he stands beside his son's idol, Marcus Aurelius; but he tempered the characteristic virtues of stoicism with the virtues characteristic of Christianity. Truthfulness, sincerity, devotion to duty, purity, humility, having their root in and deriving their nutriment from an implicit belief in the divinity, the example and the promises of Jesus Christ—these were the characteristics and guiding principles of Arnold's life. "One name there is"—so runs a passage in his Sermons—"and one alone, not truth, not justice, not benevolence, not Christ's mother, not His holiest servants, not His blessed sacraments nor His very mystical body the Church, but Himself only who died for us and rose again, Jesus Christ, both God and Man." With an intensity of purpose, a singleness of aim, the parallel of which is only to be found in the records of religious enthusiasts, he laboured to impress all this on those whose temporal and spiritual welfare he believed the order of Providence had entrusted to him. This is the key to his work as a schoolmaster, to his theory and practice with respect to what he held to be a schoolmaster's functions. Hence his constant insistence on the unimportance of mere knowledge and information, of all that

appeals to the intellect compared with what pertains to spiritual and moral discipline. Mere intellectual acuteness, when divested of all that is comprehensive and great and good, he said, was more revolting to him than the most helpless imbecility. "Moral thoughtfulness, the inquiring love of truth going along with the devoted love of goodness," he preferred to all intellectual ability. He never laid any stress on the University honours gained by his pupils. In applying for an assistant master for one of his lower forms he writes: "What I want is a man who is a Christian and a gentleman, an active man who has common sense. I do not so much care about scholarship." He never expresses any admiration for distinguished abilities, and has rarely even a word of praise for them; but his letters abound in expression of appreciation for anything that indicates moral worth. Writing to a pupil who had failed in his examination at Oxford, he says: "I can only say, for one, that as far as the real honour of Rugby is concerned it is the effort an hundred times more than the issue of the effort that is in my judgment a credit to the school, inasmuch as it shows that the men who go from here to the University do their duty there, which alone to my mind reflects honour either on individuals or on societies." On another occasion he observed: "If there be one thing on earth which is truly admirable, it is to see God's wisdom blessing an inferiority of natural powers where they have been honestly, truly and zealously cultivated"; and he said once with reference to a pupil of this character, "I would stand to that man *hat in hand*." And yet no teacher ever exacted with sterner imperativeness the utmost that the powers of a pupil could achieve, or could be more severe with what Browning calls the sins of the "unlit lamp and the ungirt loin."

It is curious to note how Arnold's intense spiritual and moral fervour seems to assimilate everything to itself, recognizing in all that indicated dereliction from virtuous principle no degrees of delinquency. The ordinary frailties of boyhood, such as most people would regard very indulgently, seem to assume the proportions of heinous crimes, and are denounced in his Sermons with awe-compelling severity, or with a pathos which is really afflicting. The influence which he exercised was the more effective and his demands the more exacting because he had had to correct in himself the tendencies which he strove to correct in others. His virtues were the trophies of self-conquest attained and preserved, it would seem, with strenuous effort and watchful care. The last words which he entered in his diary were, as Dr. Percival says, the motto of his daily life: "Let me mind my own personal work, to keep myself pure and zealous and believing, labouring to do God's will." It may be said of him that he ennobled whatever came within the sphere of his moral influence: no man ever did more to consecrate ordinary life. In dealing with boys he always proceeded on the assumption that they were gentlemen. "If you say so, that is quite enough; of course I believe your word," and he was rarely deceived. The ideal at which he aimed was the formation of all that is implied in a "Christian gentleman." There was no vulgar utilitarianism, nothing banausic in his conception of education; it was aristocratic in the best sense of the term.

No one, whatever may be his creed, can contemplate the life, work and teachings of this remarkable man without feeling the force of his son's observation that with regard to Christianity two things are certain: one is that we cannot do without it, and the other is that we cannot do with it as it is. Certainly a nobler and more fruitful life, under its particular limitations, than Arnold's could hardly be possible, and yet, as he insists over and over again with vehement emphasis, its stay and buttress, its inspiration, its nutriment were derived from one source—implicit belief in the doctrines and promises of the New Testament literally interpreted. Nothing can be more pathetic than the desperation with which he clung to "faith," the awful importance which he attached to the uncompromising acceptance of Christianity in its totality. It was as though a character which is an honour to humanity was a splendid parasite, that with the withdrawal of an artificial support would have collapsed in perplexity and ruin. In practice and effect he stands beside the loftiest of

those exemplars and teachers who placed the summum bonum in the disinterested exercise of virtue irrespective of reward and penalty either here or hereafter; but Arnold in his didactic passages, if we may say so without irreverence, borders often too closely on the exhortations and arguments of Salvation Army preachers. It is this part of his teaching which jars on us; for it is this part which we have now surely outgrown and with which most of us at all events feel, however sadly, that we must dispense. It was from this part of his teaching that the most illustrious of his pupils, notably his son and Clough, reacted almost defiantly, for he carried it too far even for his own day, just as they reacted against the moral tension of his system. Many objected that the effect of his teaching and policy was to turn Rugby into a manufactory of prigs, or, as Clough put it, of "a sort of hobbadi-hoy cherub too big to be innocent and too simple for anything else." We can only reply that a system which could produce such prigs as Dean Stanley and Thomas Hughes has produced a type of prig which we should like to see indefinitely multiplied.

The influence which Arnold has exercised and is exercising through successive dynasties of disciples on school education in England is as immense as it is salutary. And at this time it is particularly desirable that it should be as extended and active as possible. We quite agree with Dr. Percival when he says that school life amidst present tendencies greatly needs the influence of Arnold's moral and spiritual idealism; that the growth of wealth and luxury, to say nothing of other agencies, has infected many of our schools, as it has infected society at large, with a sort of epicurean materialism; that cheap literature and other external influences are tending, if not directly, yet at least insensibly, to lower school standards of aim and conduct; and that there is a growing tendency to depress and vulgarize scholastic ideals by overestimating what the Germans so happily call *Brodwissenschaft*, and by attaching too much importance to showy distinctions in athletics; to all this Arnold's ideals are just the corrective which is needed. It remains for us to say that Mr. Findlay has done his work as an editor excellently, that his selections from Arnold's sermons and papers are most judicious, and that his own comments are discriminating and pertinent.

#### A LIFE OF CONSTABLE.

"Life and Letters of John Constable, R.A." By C. R. Leslie, R.A. A new edition, with Notes by Robert C. Leslie. London: Chapman & Hall. 1897.

THIS book is unlikely to commend itself to those modern-minded persons whose notions of a biography consist in the confessions of a soul, or in the revelation of "psychological moments": it is merely the history of a gentleman, of an amiable personality, whom an incomparable genius among other virtues infinitely became. Of storm and stress there is nothing; the book merely reveals

"The depth, and not the tumult, of soul."

We know of no other life of an English artist as simply, directly and unaffectedly written as this *Life of Constable*. Its method is that of the old English biographers; indeed, the lover of Cavendish's and Walton's *Lives* may bear it in his remembrance among the last scions of that long and illustrious descent. These pages are, in a great measure, filled with quotations from Constable's own simple and charming letters, which have been selected with admirable good taste; and where these fail to tell his story, the quiet passages of an uneventful life are told with a candour and brevity undisturbed by the presence of the narrator. Gentility has grown out of repute with us; but it is impossible to read this *Life* without feeling that, in our latter-day contempt for the "genteel," we have lost a fine and human element in life, which, finely cultivated, need in no way constrain or hinder the most fastidious and original genius in us. Altogether, we are glad to have another edition of this admirable book. Mr. Robert C. Leslie's introduction and notes are unassuming and not out of place; while the illustrations, though they are

in many instances mere shadows of Lucas's splendid engravings, are yet sufficient to serve their turn and allow us to compliment the editor on his work.

Perhaps nothing has discredited Mr. Ruskin as a critic of painting so effectively as his utterances on Constable. Such sentiments as those which the editor of this book quotes from him are so petulant and "Missish," that it would not become any serious student of the fine arts to controvert them. "I have never," says Mr. Ruskin, in "Modern Painters," "seen a work of Constable in which there is any sign of his being able to draw." And again, the same writer says elsewhere: "Unteachableness seems to have been a main feature of his—Constable's—character, and there is a corresponding want of veneration in the way he approaches Nature herself." There we have, as Matthew Arnold once observed, "Mr. Ruskin exercising his intelligence." Let us place beside these absurd, provincial utterances another of a very different spirit. "The amiable but eccentric Blake, looking through one of Constable's sketch-books, said of a beautiful drawing of an avenue of fir-trees on Hampstead Heath, 'Why, this is not drawing, but inspiration'; and he replied, 'I never knew it before; I meant it for drawing.'" There we have an inimitable picture of Blake's keen critical faculty, highly sympathetic and original, though cast in an extravagant form; of Constable's urbanity, good sense and modesty, which kept him half conscious and half unconscious of his genius. What Mr. Ruskin meant by being "able to draw" was the faculty to express truthfully, by means of a three H pencil, a little water-colour and a pocket-handkerchief, small portions of natural objects with the unimpassioned intelligence of the scientific observer and the microscopic precision of the miniaturist. Mr. Ruskin's own drawings are admirable examples of his notion of being "able to draw." Certainly, in this sense, Constable has left nothing to show us that he had acquired that faculty. On the contrary, he always sought to see Nature as an entire creature, and to represent her with emotion. He often said that he "never would look at any object unconnected with a background or other objects." Drawing for him meant not so much the definition of this or that form as the representation of light and shade, of aerial perspective, of darker and lighter masses, relieving or opposing one another. Dew, wind, rain are natural forms as definite as the articulation of a bird's wing or the calyx of a flower: and Mr. Ruskin's method of drawing, though it may admirably express the anatomy of the bird or the flower, cannot convey to us the sense of the flight of birds, such as Rameau conveys to us in his lesson, "Le Rappel des Oiseaux," or still less such a scene as Wordsworth's

"host of golden daffodils,  
Beside the lake, beneath the trees,  
Fluttering and dancing in the breeze."

But these are the very things which Constable painted with inimitable feeling. "How fresh, how dewy, how exhilarating!" exclaimed Lady Morley on seeing the view of Englefield House. "He makes me call for my great-coat and umbrella," said Fuseli.

But what Mr. Ruskin misunderstood in Constable was not only his drawing, but the human sentiment which he brings into all his pictures. Constable invariably sees Nature as the home and haunt of man: the scene of his labours, his joys, sorrows, retirements. But when we examine further into this sentiment in Constable's pictures we find that it is of a very intimate and special nature. Leslie relates how he visited Constable's native place in Suffolk, and how he found "that the scenery of eight or ten of our late friend's most important subjects might be enclosed by a circle of a few hundred yards at Flatford, very near Bergholt; within this space are the lock which forms the subject of several pictures, Willy Lott's house, the little raised wooden bridge and the picturesque cottage near it, seen in the picture engraved for Messrs. Finden's work, and introduced into others, and the meadow in which the picture of 'Boat-building' was entirely painted." It was within "this circle of a few hundred yards" at Flatford that Constable first learned to see Nature and to form that sentiment towards her which determined his art all his life through. The memory of this en-



chanted circle was always present with him, in whatever other place he might be or whatever other scene he might be painting. A view of the house in which he was born at Flatford forms the frontispiece to his "English Landscape," with these lines inscribed under it:—

"Hic locus ætatis nostræ primordia novit,  
Annos felices lætitiæque dies:  
Hic locus ingenuis pueriles imbuunt annos  
Artibus et nostræ laudis origo fuit."

He seems aware that in painting and repainting some aspect of these few acres around Flatford he was painting the world which he knew, when "every common sight" did seem

"Apparell'd in celestial light,  
The glory and the brightness of a dream."  
His sympathies and interests, his hopes and fears,  
"Did all within this circle move."

He paints it in sunshine and rain, at dawn and twilight, in calm and in storm, with the same art and interest that a dramatist would portray a human character in the varying light of successive passions. In this way a new element enters into the art of landscape—an element for which we vainly look in the landscapes of Claude or Gaspar Poussin. But the presence of it in Constable's pictures renders them the counterpart in painting of those poems by Wordsworth and his contemporaries which convey sentiments towards Nature not unsimilar nor less beautiful.

#### NATURAL HISTORY AND SPORT.

"Letters to Young Shooters." Third Series. Comprising a Short Natural History of British Wild Fowl. By Sir Ralph Payne-Gallwey, Bart. London, New York, and Bombay: Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

THOSE who go gunning after wildfowl, if they are to get the most out of the sport, should not be content merely with bringing so many head to bag. During winter along our shores there are always such various visitors, and occasionally such very rare specimens make their appearance, that a new zest is added to the mere shooting, if something of the spirit of natural history be added to that desire to kill which seems part of an Englishman's nature. A really good sportsman will delight in determining the exact genus to which every bird brought home belongs; but to do so requires either immense knowledge gained by practical experience or the consulting of a voluminous Natural History. Sir Ralph Payne-Gallwey in these pages not only gives the shooter all the hints as to methods and equipment which will be needed, but with sympathetic forethought provides for the more intellectual requirements of the young hand also. To carry about a work of reference large enough to be a trustworthy guide on all birds would be most inconvenient, and therefore in these pages only such varieties are described as there is any probability of meeting. The illustrations of the birds, which we are told have all been sketched from life, are really excellent, and are well worth the inconvenience and even danger which we learn that the artist was put to while obtaining them. The general illustrations are scarcely so good from an artistic point of view, but are nevertheless very valuable as explaining the text. To our author the labour he has bestowed on the volume is clearly one of love. What has been said in previous books by him has been eminently useful and valuable, but now he rises in his enthusiasm almost to the height of poetry, and reading his glowing passages we are able to realize how it is that the hardships he describes are to him as nothing when weighed against his favourite sport. Undoubtedly there is a special fascination about wildfowling sure almost to infect any young man who takes it up. It is the case of the primrose and the poet. To the ordinary mortal a swan or duck is nothing more than a swan or duck. But to a man such as Sir Ralph is himself, and would have his pupils be, there are five or even six kinds of wildgeese, and it makes all the difference in the world which is brought to bag. There are a dozen kinds of ducks, each more valuable than the other, while the

waders, grebes, and divers are an army in themselves. Then the feeling of loneliness on the dreary, barren flats as the sun sinks down is immensely attractive, and how delightful is the suppressed excitement with which the solitary watcher marks the birds approaching! There is more of the romance of sport about it than in any form of shooting except perhaps deer-stalking, and it costs comparatively little to indulge in. It is enough, indeed, to make one shudder to read how our author revels in the winds and cold. The east wind can never have been so apostrophized since Kingsley's day, while it seems that hail and frost afford as great a delight to him as "the glorious easterly gale." The pleasures of lying half frozen in two or three inches of icy water at the bottom of a gunning punt are sung equally rapturously, as are the hopes and fears and disappointments that crowd on the pursuer of wildduck and widgeon, even as they do on him whose quarry is salmon and trout.

Whether it is the best recreation for men of middle age may possibly be questioned, but there can be little doubt that, if a boy be trained to it, he will thus become a truer sportsman than if he begins with partridges or pheasants at a battue. He will learn to study and observe nature just as the fisherman does, and he will rely on himself for his success as much in the one sport as the other. Neither with these pages before him can he fail to become a naturalist, and then he is in a fair way to be a better man.

"He prayeth well

Who loveth well both man, and bird, and beast."

Every boy who lives by the sea-coast should be encouraged to read these Letters, therefore, and if he follows the author's advice we feel certain that he will not do so in vain. But let him by all means begin with the shoulder-gun and stick to it as long as possible. To us it seems that there is more romance about its use, and more opening for the skill and ingenuity of the individual to assert itself, than when the heavier weapon is made use of, and there is less expense and paraphernalia in general involved too. The earlier portion of the present volume deals with the simpler form of the sport; then follows what is practically a Natural History of all the birds at all likely to come within range of the shooter; but the last third of the book is taken up entirely with descriptions of gunning punts, and hints as to them and stanchion guns. It is this portion which will be most valuable to the man who makes a study or profession of this sort of shooting, and embarks with the idea of bringing home as many birds as possible in a more or less businesslike way. The young man, too, who wishes to lay himself out for bigger bags than can be obtained with his ordinary fowling-piece will here find a storehouse of valuable information, and all the latest inventions and improvements are described for his benefit. Many people will not view the form of sport suggested by this section of the book with quite the same enthusiasm as does the author. One might almost be reading a treatise on artillery to judge by the dimensions of the weapons discussed. Imagine a gun intended for the destruction of birds which weighs 170 lbs. and has a bore whose diameter is  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch! Why it is little less than a fieldpiece, and indeed leaves some of the old-fashioned cannon of the Middle Ages far behind. To bombard a flock of duck with such an implement seems really a somewhat brutal proceeding; but it is the excitement of the stalking and not the actual shot which forms the pleasure of those who haunt the oozes and mudflats of our estuaries. The pages which deal with the construction and fittings of the punts that simply form the carriages for these great weapons strike us as particularly valuable. Every nicety and detail is carefully discussed, and the man who follows the advice here given him should possess a model little craft. But even when his gun and punt are ready he will find much to read in the way of advice as to how best he may stalk his game. The sculling and paddling of a punt noiselessly through the water is an art by itself, and is perhaps the most important factor in a successful enterprise. With this side of his subject our author shows himself as much at home as with every other, and he can describe how the boat is to be manœuvred just as clearly and fully as he can

enter into the details of loading and aiming the gun. In fact, he shows himself a most thorough and complete sportsman, and everything he has to say on his pet hobby should be listened to with the utmost respect.

#### THE LIFE OF A MEDÆVAL MONASTERY.

"The Observances in use at the Augustinian Priory of S. Giles and S. Andrew at Barnwell, Cambridge-shire." Edited, with Translation and Glossary, by J. Willis Clark, M.A., F.S.A., Registrary of the University, formerly Fellow of Trinity College. Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes. 1897.

THERE are few subjects upon which more misconceptions exist than the life and constitution of a mediæval monastery. Many a well-educated man would be puzzled to define the difference between an abbot and a prior, a monk and a canon, or an obedientiary, a servant, and a servitor; whilst he would probably maintain the old delusion that all monks lived in "cells." The very terms have come to be misused, and a convent is commonly understood to mean a building containing nuns, instead of a corporate society of men (or of women) inhabiting the collection of buildings known as a monastery. The publication by Mr. J. Willis Clark, the learned Registrary of the University of Cambridge, of the Observances of the Augustinian Priory at Barnwell will do much to clear the average mind of these and similar confusions, by placing before it an accurate and interesting account of a convent of Augustinian regular canons. The authenticity and date of the Latin text are beyond dispute: it is printed from the 8th book of the manuscript known as the "Barnwell Cartulary" in the British Museum, which was certainly written in 1295-96. Other parts of this MS. have been freely used by Nichols and by Marmaduke Prickett, but so far the important 8th book, which contains the Observances or rules for the government of the convent, seems to have escaped the attention of editors. Barnwell Priory was founded in 1112 by Pain Peverel, formerly standard-bearer to Robert "Curthose" in the Holy Land. At the time the manuscript was written Symon de Ascelles, the twelfth prior, had been thirty years in office, and a great fire had recently burned all the woodwork of the church. "God knows," says the author, "what losses we then sustained in respect of stone-work broken, of the clock, of lead, of windows, of bells cracked, of damage to our neighbours, and of expenses incurred in repairing everything." This fire led to an animated controversy with the bishop—generally the *bête noire* of monastic establishments—who seems to have permitted himself distinctly unepiscopal language; but finally the convent got its way, and the burnt church was duly "reconciled" by his lordship, who solemnly walked thrice round the building, both inside and out, sprinkled the walls and the people with holy water "mixed with wine and ashes," and celebrated High Mass. The Priory continued to flourish until the dissolution in 1538, when its effects and materials were sold for the moderate sum of £61 15s. 2d. Two images, two laten lamps, one sacring bell, two "great candlestykes of laten," "j payr of orgaynis," all from the High Altar, went for 26s. 8d. The iron grating, ancient clock, and choir stalls fetched only £6 13s. 4d., and the contents of the buttery, "v hoggesheddes, j ould tubbe, j bread huche, j stalle to ley drynke on, and a particion of wode," together with all the kitchen battery, were bought for 2s. Dr. Legh providently secured, from the "High Chamber," a feather bed, bolster, pillow, blanket, coverlet and tester of "ould baudkyn," curtains of "sarsnet," table, two chairs, carpet, two forms, for the really absurd price of 40s. Forty years later the ruins were being used as a quarry, and the chapel of Corpus Christi College owed part of its materials to this source. The final destruction took place in 1810-12, when the foundations were ruthlessly dug up, the plan of the monastery obliterated, the ground levelled, and only a few unimportant walls now stand to mark the site of the once famous and wealthy Priory.

The Book of Observances, or *Consuetudinarium*, presents a remarkable picture of conventual life and

government at the close of the thirteenth century. The list of officers, or *obedientiarii*, is large, and shows that the object of the Augustinian system was as far as possible to give separate functions to each canon, so that employment and responsibility might exclude the temptations of idleness. The Prelate, Sub-Prior, and Third Prior controlled the general government of the House—the first with despotic authority. The Precentor, Succentor, Sacrist, and Matriculary had charge of the church, the services, and the books. The Cellarer, Grainger, and Receiver attended to the property and estates and temporal affairs in general; the Cellarer also superintended the commissariat. The Kitchenier supervised the kitchen, instructed the caterer, and kept the food accounts; whilst the Fraterer ordered the waiting upon the brethren in the Frater or Refectory, and took notice if any of them stained the clean cloth. The Chamberlain attended to the dress and tailoring of the convent, the darning of the brethren's hose, the linen, and the "wash," and fined the laundress if the things did not come back according to list; the Hosteller provided for the comfort and entertainment of the guests, whom every monastery hospitably received, saw that they had clean pillows and silver spoons, and that their fire did not smoke; the Almoner distributed the charity of the House, and the Master of the Farmery ministered to the sick and aged. Besides these there were the Reader at Table, lay brethren, servants, servitors, novices, &c.

The brethren not only had all things in common, but did all things in common. They had no privacy, but spent their leisure together in the cloister, often under the "rule of silence," reading or learning passages of Scripture. They all slept together in the common "Dorter" or dormitory, and even the Prelate (or prior), notwithstanding the unbounded reverence with which he was regarded, was expected, when he had finished his rounds of inspection, and seen to the locks and bolts, to join the brotherhood in the general bedroom. Strict rules governed the behaviour of the convent in the Dorter. No one was allowed there with his head uncovered. Looking out of the windows was not permitted, nor was reading in bed with a candle. Strangers could not be admitted to the Dorter without leave, and if women were allowed to view it, they must be of good repute (*i.e.* probably ugly), and must only enter "in the presence of several witnesses, and be *speedily taken out again*." The brethren slept in shirt, drawers and gaiters, and were ordered to take off their shoes under their clothes, with the strictest propriety. And woe betide them if they did not get up the moment the Matriculary rang the bell in the Dorter at midnight for Mattins. This unfortunate minor official must have passed a harassed existence, for we read in the 15th Section of the Observances, "*De Officio Sacriste*," that the Matriculary's duties were "to keep watch over the canonical hours by night and by day for the purpose of celebrating Divine service; to ring the bells; to regulate the clock" (all this, by the way, in a day which was reckoned from sunrise to sunset, and divided into twelve parts, varying according to the season); tolling the small bell to awaken the brethren in the Dorter for Mattins, to answer the front door knocker, sweep out the church, wash the lamps, trim the candles, prepare chafing dishes to warm the hands of the officiating canons, open and lock up the church, eat and sleep in it. He must know the right number and kind of bells to be rung on special feasts, and his memory for ringing must be as good as a bugler's for barrack-calls. We have never heard that sub-Sacristis or buglers were celebrated for longevity.

Another obedientiary who had a great deal to do was the Precentor, who was also librarian (*armarius*), and had to dust, repair, point, and bind with his own hands the considerable collection of service-books and other manuscripts and store them in the book-cupboard, lined with wood to keep out the damp of the walls, and divided into convenient compartments. The brethren borrowed them to read in the cloister, but the careful librarian noted each borrower's name in a roll kept for the purpose; nor could any book be lent outside the convent except by his leave, and even then the borrower was required to deposit a pledge of equal value; so



highly were the books prized in those days of scanty literature. Once a year there was a general parade of all the books. Each brother had to produce the book he had borrowed, and if he had been indolent and left it unread, he was compelled to confess his fault with shame, prostrate on his knees before the whole Chapter.

Naturally the frequent services of the day—Mattins, Lauds, Prime, Terce, Sext, None, Vespers and Compline, Morning Mass, High Mass, and extra and private Masses—sharpened the brethren's appetites and made them exceedingly thirsty. Hence the offices of Kitchener, Cellarer and Sub-Cellarer were no sinecures. The last had special charge of the bread and beer, and the pains he took to keep the convent from quarrelling with their liquor were boundless. "When new barrels are filled with beer they are not to be left without some one to watch them. In winter, straw is to be placed round the barrels, and, if need be, a fire is to be lighted. In summer the windows of the cellar are to be closed, to prevent the heat of the sun reaching the barrels. The Cellarer ought not to give new beer to the convent to drink until the fourth day." In spite of these precautions the Sub-Cellarer evidently had to put up with the criticisms of habitual grumblers, and it is therefore laid down that he should be "of a cheerful countenance, temperate in his answers, courteous to strangers, and of polished manners, so that he may not only not speak harshly himself, but may know how to bear with equanimity the hard words of others"—when the beer was flat, for instance. Good feeding and much beer would probably heat the constitutions of the worthy Canons, and it is therefore prescribed that they must be bled seven times a year in the Farmery, the master of which, though no doctor, must keep "ginger, cinnamon, peony and the like, to render prompt assistance to the sick if stricken by a sudden malady." Many curious instructions are recorded for every operation of the day: the proper order of washing and of combing the hair; the impropriety of mistaking a towel for a pocket-handkerchief or a toothbrush; and a thousand other minute directions. But we have said enough to show that the Observances of the Priory of S. Giles and S. Andrew at Barnwell are interesting not only to the antiquary, but to all who wish to obtain a clear idea of the monastic life of the thirteenth century.

#### THE SUPPRESSION OF THE MATABELE REVOLT.

"The Matabele Campaign, 1896; being a Narrative of the Campaign in suppressing the Native Rising in Matabeleland and Mashonaland. By Colonel R. S. Baden-Powell. London: Methuen. 1897.

THE suppression of the Matabele rebellion was essentially a soldiers' war. When the natives rose, men dropped their spades and drills and seized their rifles, and rallied round the first leaders they could find. The revolt was finally suppressed by independent detachments of mounted troops, who harassed the natives in their retreats and forced them to submission by threatening to prevent the sowing of the next season's crops. The movements of the various detachments were guided by Sir F. Carrington from Bulawayo; but the general in command was not able to join in the actual fighting, and the war was won by individual pluck and not by strategy. Hence, for a history of the war we have to rely on the journals of the combatants, instead of on the despatches of the Commander-in-chief. Mr. Selous's "Sunshine and Storm in Rhodesia" told the story of the war up to the date of the arrival of reinforcements from England in June and the disbandment on 4 July of the Bulawayo Field Force, whose heroic efforts had broken the back of the revolt. Colonel Baden-Powell takes up the story where Selous left off. He entered the country in June, haunted by the fear that the fighting would be over before he reached the scene of operations. The critical stage of the war, no doubt, had passed; but the enemy still occupied their mountain strongholds, and it was essential that they should be driven from these and forced to beg for peace. Accordingly detachments were sent out in various directions to break up the last bodies of the enemy.

As the chief of Carrington's staff, it was Colonel Baden-Powell's duty to discover their position. Instead of trusting to natives, he did most of the scouting himself, earning from the Matabele the name of Impeesa, owing to his daring and the rapidity and stealthiness of his movements. After a couple of months engaged in what the author calls the "best of all arts, sciences, or sports—scouting," he was sent further afield in an independent command. He reached his force to find that the chief Uwini, against whom he had been sent, was already captured; but the author was in time to chase the natives out of the Shangani Forest, and to storm the stronghold of a chief named Wedza. After six months' service he returned home *via* Salisbury and Beira.

Colonel Baden-Powell is clearly one of the best type of English officer; he is an enthusiastic soldier, full of pluck and energy; he displays uniform good temper, and is irritated only by clumsiness and bad work. He is a straightforward writer, and his diary is of value as it shows us the impressions of the moment on the country and the war. His story is of less thrilling interest than that of Selous, for the fate of the war was decided before Colonel Baden-Powell reached Matabeleland. But the military lessons in this book are more important; they demonstrate the immeasurable superiority of mounted troops over infantry in South African warfare. As the author only stayed in the country from June to December, he had few personal opportunities of studying its resources and prospects; but he throws a few suggestive side lights on the former administration. He tells us that the rebellion was due to the Jameson Raid; and his account of Mr. Rhodes's famous palaver with the Matabele does not represent that incident as being quite as heroic as did the telegrams at the time.

The most regrettable feature of the book is the account of the execution of Uwini, a wounded prisoner whom Colonel Baden-Powell had tried by court-martial and then shot. For this high-handed proceeding he was placed under open arrest by orders of the High Commissioner, who further insisted on an inquiry into the circumstances. The spirit in which the author refers to this interference by Lord Rosmead is unfortunate. His defence is quite inadequate, and he no doubt could have made it much more convincing if he had chosen to do so. "My only defence is that it was the only right thing to do under the circumstances" is all he says (p. 411). Elsewhere he mentions charges against Uwini; but we should have been glad of information as to the nature of the evidence on which the death sentence was based.

#### DR. HARNACK AGAIN.

"History of Dogma." By Dr. Adolph Harnack. Translated by Neil Buchanan. Vol. II. Williams & Norgate. 1897.

PROFESSOR HARNACK is always welcome. Few critics are better loved in England, and none are more salutary for us. Not only is the Professor a marvel of learning, but he has a good heart to boot; that is to say, he has the common-sense of sympathy and the sympathy of common-sense. He does not attribute great changes and large developments to the mere wantonness of thought leaders, nor to the blind slavishness of an unspiritual clergy. He traces step by step the story of how Christian theology grew and took definite outline, how it passed from the child-like and emotional stage into the severely intellectual, and from the warm wrappings of its Jewish cradle into the Greek garments of its manhood. He looks wistfully and speaks sometimes a little mournfully, or even tartly, about the changes he describes; but he never fails to see that some reasonable necessity wrought these changes, or at the very least, that they were the resultants of many inevitable combats and combinations. So far from saying "here the Christian Church fooled and fell," he says rather "this seam in her face dates from the swords of the gnostics, whom she defeated, and that twist in her finger came from a death grapple with strong centrifugal schisms." When you expect him to lament or to jeer at some new development, which perhaps had after-effects of ill, he simply summarizes the gain of the new position, or reminds us

that the old was no longer tenable. There is an aloofness about Professor Harnack. He does not leave his stithy to wield any of the swords he has been fashioning with care and pains. If Romish writers wish for the correct view of the excerpts which they quote from writers of this period, he gives it to them frankly and fairly. Few more impartial pieces of Church history have been written than his excursus to Chapters II. and III. on the Roman question. The unprincipled and unstable views of St. Cyprian on this subject are carefully exposed; the full weight of Irenæus' testimony to Papal authority is allowed. The great and good influence of Rome (as the *Cathedra Petri*) both over the East and over the rest of Christendom is by no means minimized or denied, although the historian has small sympathy with modern Papal claims. On the other hand, he exposes unsparingly the modern fictions about primitive Christianity. There never was a time (*pace* Dr. Westcott) when historical Christianity was a religion "of the book." "No one thought of the desperate idea of an invisible Church; this notion would probably have brought about a lapse from pure Christianity far more rapidly than the idea of the Holy Catholic Church." The primitive Christian undoubtedly leaned very heavily upon "some form of tradition," whether he called it *γνώσις* or *κυριακή διδασκαλία*, or by another of his many names. These and similar verdicts are salutary for us to hear.

But Professor Harnack is not infallible, and occasionally he can misconceive an author with the worst of us. His attempt to prove that the Alexandrian Church in Clement's time had no baptismal confession and no definitely formulated summary of faith strikes one as simply forlorn. It must be granted that much of this "History of Dogma" will have to be modified if the author is mistaken on this crucial point. But since both Caspari and Voight are against him here, we will make bold to declare against him also. In the first place, it is absolutely inconceivable that in the clear Greek air, in the critical atmosphere of Alexandria, the Christian faith should remain long in a nebulous condition. Sublimated emotions and essential spirits may suit foggy modern manufacturing centres, but Alexandria looked upon herself as the inheritress of Athenian wisdom, and was not likely to let a thriving faith remain unformulated for a century or more. It is true that Clement is perpetually referring to an "ecclesiastical canon," to the "true, or divine tradition," and to "the Gospel canon"; and he uses many other similar terms. Are we to believe that these repeated phrases are merely equivalents for Christian common-sense or right methods of interpreting Scripture? If Clement speaks of the *ὁμολογία*, which the orthodox keep and heretics transgress, we are forbidden, forsooth, to translate this as "confession of faith," but may only look upon it as confession vaguely, which is rather begging the whole question. There is no doubt that whether Clement speaks of the Apostles' Creed or not, under the phrases he uses, he never gives any such summary; nor, indeed, does he seem to follow such arrangement of subject, or in any way to have a creed openly before his eyes. But is not this entirely explained by Clement himself? He distinctly says that a naked assertion of the faith would be no argument at all. It would simply be met by a naked denial. But though he avoids and professes to avoid the open summary of the Christian religion, he is careful, he says, to sow the *λόγματα* sparsely about his works, so that the sacred tradition may not be easily accessible to any one but the initiated—*ὥς μὴ ῥαδίαν εἶναι τῷ περιτυχόντι τῶν ἀμνηστῶν τὴν τῶν ἀγίων παραδόσεων εὕρεσιν* (Stromateis, VII. Cap. xviii. § 110). In the scoffing air of Alexandria he was almost bound to practise this economy, this concealment, which he tells us he aims at in his writing. Professor Harnack should tell us what it was, upon his hypothesis, that Clement was so careful to conceal. It was neither the Scriptures, which he quotes freely, nor general rules of moral conduct, nor the deductions of "Christian common-sense," which things are all largely and openly exhibited. It is difficult to see how anything that was definite enough to conceal would have been quite amorphous if it had been revealed. Therefore, much as we like Professor Har-

nack and greatly as we respect his work, we must confess that his theory gets a bad wound here. The worst of it is that the cut comes not only across a large blood-vessel, but at a critical moment in the battle. The book as a whole is practically spoiled by this mishap, although the detailed work of course is not rendered valueless. For instance, the chapter upon the Apologists is most interesting as showing the dangers of the ante-Nicene positions generally. The chapter upon Irenæus is particularly welcome; for the mythical misinterpretations of that writer are almost endless. One set of men regard him as a profound and finished theologian; another set (among whom are Dr. Fairbairn and his compatriots) rail against that writer as the arch-perverter of the imaginary "primitive purity" of the Christian religion. To both sets of men it would be useful to learn what Irenæus actually did, and why he did it, and to realize how meagre or perverted might have been the contents of the faith if it had ceased to unfold itself either before Irenæus or even immediately after him. His greatest work was done in the department of soteriology on lines which his ignorant detractors ought to greet with true delight. But this train of thought leads us away from Professor Harnack and lands us upon a much lower and less fruitful plane. Though we cannot look upon this volume as altogether worthy of the first, it is still indispensable to all students.

#### "INTELLECTUAL ANARCHY."

"Patience Sparhawk and her Times." By Gertrude Atherton. London: John Lane. 1897.

IN the dedication to M. Paul Bourget we find that Mrs. Atherton's novel is designed to show that "the motive power, the cohering force, the ultimate religion of that strange composite known as 'the American' is Individual Will," and that "in the higher civilization" the Individual Will "amounts to intellectual anarchy," from which "destruction, chaos, may eventuate." One cannot misunderstand this manifesto. A stickler about words might scruple before admitting that the anarchy is as intellectual as might be wished; but anarchy is here, beyond a doubt. We may not worship the American Anarch so reverently as Mrs. Atherton does; but we cannot deny that the creature has good points in the way of Anarchism. He has neither taste nor the sense of humour; but there is not a Mechanics' Institute in Boston which could possibly refrain from affirming him a miracle of Mentality. He himself says he is, and Mrs. Atherton quite agrees: so there's an end on't. Having just become engaged to marry Patience Sparhawk's sister-in-law, Mr. Latimer Burr felt it in his intellectual heart to practise uxoriousness with the newly-wedded heroine of the tale. He had known her for about ten minutes only; but what did that matter? Mr. Burr "was a man upon whom rebuff sat lightly." Therefore, coming upon Patience in a dark corner of her own house, he "tried to kiss her." She declined; but it is the part of the Intellectual Anarch to anarchize, and the incident could not close with anything so tame as an unchaste salute deferred. There must needs be some mentalizing. Consequently "she held her head with a young triumph in beauty and the intellectual tribute of clever men," and proceeded to discuss the situation. She told him that she quite realized him to be a man of fashion and that her own destiny was to be a woman thereof. "You will never be that," said he, "for there are not enough brainy men in society to appreciate you. If all were like myself, you would be wearied with the din of admiration." "There's nothing like having a good opinion of oneself," said she. "Why not?" quoth Mr. Burr. "I don't set up to be an intellectual man myself—intellectual men are out of date; but I'm a brainy man, and I'd like to know how I'm to help being aware of the fact." The bride felt him to be "as ingenuous as all fast men," and frankly owned it; but she saw no sign of his having subtlety, and to be kissed by a man with no subtlety was clearly out of the question. "The women you have spent your life running after make no demands on subtlety," said she. "Take care," said he, angrily;



"you are going too far. I tell you I have as much soul as any man living." What profiteth it a man to osculate if the woman believes not in his brainy soul? Mr. Burr saw no profit whatever, and therefore his philandering did not eventuate as he had at first designed. It eventuated, however, in a most impressive coruscation of Mentality. The husband of Patience, who had been eavesdropping in the interests of Intellectual Anarchy, broke in upon the duologue; and the bride left the two fighting with no regard for the Queensberry or any other rules. "Man is certainly still a savage, a brute," she said. "What is the matter with civilization?" This problem about civilization left her at ease for a time; indeed, it kept her severely intellectual for two pages; but the lady had had a variety of pasts, and, as was only reasonable, another Anarch stepped along. He too wanted to qualify her for divorce, in order that he might prove to himself that his soul was thoroughly mentalized; but the American bride, the new flower of civilization, which has something the matter with it, is fastidious as to co-respondents. She does not always dally so promptly as the melancholy ruffian of the other sex desires. "I am merely worshipping an ideal of the hour," said the second Intellectual Anarch; "Do you love your husband?" "No," she answered. "Then you are a harlot," he said deliberately. What else he wished her to be we cannot understand; we are not American Mentalists, and our reflections do not eventuate.

#### PALMER'S CATULLUS.

"Catulli Veronensis Liber." Edited by Arthur Palmer, Litt.Doc. London: Macmillan. 1897.

MESSRS. MACMILLAN are laying all those who read the Classics for pleasure under a great obligation by the issue of their delightful Parnassus Library of Greek and Latin Texts, of which this volume is an instalment. But there is one remark which we are tempted to make. In the prospectus of these issues we are told that the design is to place within the reach of all who care to possess them the masterpieces of classical literature "in a form at once convenient and pleasant to the eye." Now there are many hundreds of readers who delight in Catullus just as they delight in Béranger or Burns, who do not care to be worried about textual minutiae while they are enjoying the poetry. Such enjoyment and critical curiosity about readings are compatible, but are quite separate things, and it is grotesque and even repulsive to confuse them. In every poem we are confronted with lines which are an exasperating eyesore of staggering Roman letters and italics—such as

"Verum istuc populi lingua quieta tacet."

"O factum male! vae miselle passer."

The reader feels quite thankful to come across a poem—as he sometimes, though very rarely, does—without these impediments. In his text, which is mainly that of Ellis, Professor Palmer very properly chooses the readings which have the best manuscript authority; but we wish that in some passages he could have seen his way to adopt readings the intrinsic merit of which outweighs their want of authority. Such would be the conjecture of Muretus in LXIV. 65,

"Non tereti strophio luctantes vincta papillas," for "lactentes," a reading which has neither much point nor much vividness; and in LXVI. the reading of the old editions,

"Luce autem canæ Tethyi restitutor," is surely far preferable to

"Lux autem canæ Tethyi restituit," especially when taken in connexion with "vector in occasum," three lines before. Where Professor Palmer deviates from Ellis we must do him the justice to say that it is generally for the better, as certainly in II. 8 and in reading "posse" without the hiatus after line 10; in XXV. 5, where "diva miluorum aves" is read for the impossible "cum diva mulier aries"; LXIV. 273, where "leviterque sonant" is far better than Ellis's reading "leviter resonant"; in line 177 of the same poem we can only say that if "*Idæosne petam montes*" is not the right reading it ought to be. But we do not at all like the

insertion of the editor's not very felicitous conjecture of "vi vindice" for the common reading "simul undique" in 101 LXVIII. B, flat though that reading be, and we certainly protest against Professor Palmer's wooden substitute of "misero me trudere more"—a conjecture worthy of Bentley at his worst—for "misero me tradere amori" in XCIX. 11. Nor can we congratulate Professor Palmer on his treatment of the notorious crux in LXVIII. B. He prints the absolutely unintelligible reading of the MSS., "Conjugis in culpâ flagrantem cotidianâ," and though he gives a special excursus on the passage, he simply imports additional obscurity into what was obscure enough before. Either Baehren's conjecture, "concupit iram," with Pleitner's variant, "concitat," or Hertzberg's "contudit," though yielding opposite meanings, make perfectly good sense, though certainty is impossible, because there may be an hiatus after line 140. In any case Professor Palmer's parallel from Ovid and assumption that Juno complains to Diana, as well as his reasons for rejecting "contudit," are palpably absurd. But these are trifles, and the work as a whole is a credit to the series to which it belongs.

#### COMPENSATION AND A LITTLE LAW.

"The Law and Practice of Compensation." By G. M. Freeman, Q.C. London: The Land Agent's Record, Limited. 1897.

"Property Law for General Readers." By W. C. Maude. London: Effingham Wilson. 1897.

"Legal Lore." Edited by W. Andrews. London: W. Andrews. 1897.

THE subject of compensation seems to have peculiar attractions for legal writers just now. Is it that the inroads of the common-law men are driving Parliamentary barristers to seek compensation elsewhere? Mr. Freeman's book follows hard on that of another distinguished Parliamentary lawyer, Mr. Balfour Browne, which followed at no long interval the third edition of Mr. Cripps's book. In all such matters, Mr. Cripps is as much in his element as he is out of it in Parliament, and his standard work on "Compensation" left little to be said.

But Mr. Freeman may fairly and can successfully plead that he has approached his subject from a different standpoint from Mr. Cripps. He is not so much concerned with the question as it presents itself to a legal critic as with its substantial meaning to those who have to pay compensation and those who hope to receive it. Accordingly, he gives you a straightforward, readable narrative, in the form of a history of a compensation case from its earliest stages to the final disposal of costs. He also shows how such cases arise, and he has some very suggestive passages as to possible future developments. The book is happily not overburdened with authorities, and is commendably brief; in one of its aspects we think too brief. No attempt is made to find a common principle as the basis of all compensation; and yet that is the most intellectual and most interesting aspect of the whole subject; and is one that may present itself forcibly to the actual parties in these cases; it is as much a layman's point as a lawyer's.

It may be such a basis cannot be found, and, if it can be found, is at any rate not acted upon in fact. We are the last to suggest that the law and practice as to this or any other matter should be treated as deductive, when it is not so; but there are points about compensation which indicate the possibility of raising this branch of law to a deductive position. We should have liked Mr. Freeman to discuss the question, and the more so that various remarks scattered up and down the book suggest a capacity for the intellectual treatment of legal matters such as we do not often meet with in regulation law books. This may, perhaps, be put down to the experience of the writer, which has made him see his subject not through the medium of formulæ and rules, but as a living factor in modern life. Mr. Freeman has done well to reproduce in permanent form the series of articles contributed to the "Land Agent's Record."

"Property Law for General Readers" will do no harm so long as the "general readers" do not mistake the vague idea of property law they may get from this pamphlet for legal knowledge.

The compilers of "Legal Lore; or, Curiosities of Law and Lawyers," have got hold of so many quaint and happy subjects that it is surprising they have not been able to turn out a more interesting volume.

#### RECENT PHILOSOPHICAL WORKS.

"Recent Advances in Theistic Philosophy of Religion." By James Lindsay. Edinburgh: Blackwood. 1897.

"Contemporary Theology and Theism." By R. M. Wenley. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. 1897.

"Outlines of Psychology." By Wilhelm Wundt. Translated with the co-operation of the author by Charles Hubbard Judd, Ph.D., Instructor in Wesleyan University. Leipzig: Englemann. London: Williams & Norgate. 1897.

MR. LINDSAY has previously published a volume on the progressiveness of Christian theology which has met, so he tells us, with "an unusually favourable reception." Naturally encouraged, he has proceeded to prepare "the present much larger volume," in which he appears to have set out with the desire of showing the latest advances in theistic conceptions. Now a clear statement of the manner in which such conceptions have been modified and clarified by scientific and speculative advance would undoubtedly be of much public utility if it could be conveyed to the proper quarters; for our public religious teachers do not too commonly enunciate theistic views which readily assimilate with those conceptions of the Universe which emerge as the result of even common culture. We opened this "present larger volume," therefore, with the hope that it might be found to supply a definite want; but after full perusal of its four hundred pages we must confess to some disappointment—and just a little weariness.

It was Strauss, if we remember rightly, who observed of one of his contemporary critics that he was a wonderfully learned man; and immediately added the somewhat brutal remark that a very learned man is often a very great fool. It is not for us to indulge in those amenities which are the prerogative of scholarship; and certainly Mr. Lindsay is not a fool, but a wise as well as a learned man. Yet we think he would have displayed his wisdom more advantageously from an author's—certainly he would from a reader's—point of view, had he put upon his learning some further restraint. Surely there is virtue in foot-notes and appendices; but every author who is here referred to at all, no matter what his relative importance, is brought indiscriminately into the text to be quoted, or banned, or blessed. And the authors with whom Mr. Lindsay is familiar are legion. He must possess something more than the apprehensive genius of Shelley, who read eight lines at a time and comprehended a paragraph at a glance, though probably not in the days when he was studying metaphysics. Here is a page on which Mr. Lindsay introduces the names of forty-nine authors, any one of whom would furnish an average student with some weeks of philosophic pause. Even with strict classification this *embarras des richesses* would be confusing; but Mr. Lindsay does not classify beyond the subject of his chapters. He takes his authors haphazard as they come to hand or memory, with resulting juxtapositions and offsettings which are sometimes peculiar. Thus, having paused to reprove the tendency of Hegel and Green—we do not admit the tendency—to attenuate the idea of the personality of God, Mr. Lindsay proceeds to show us that later philosophy has purged itself of the error; for not only have Drs. Matheson and Flint expressed themselves unexceptionably, but "among other writers Miss Cobbe declares for the personality of God—urging prayer as an aid to the maintenance of this belief." Shall we put the question to a plébiscite?

This question of the propriety of applying the quality of personality to God provides indeed the strongest thread

of thought upon which the minister of St. Andrew, Kilmarnock, strings his pearls of philosophic learning. We think he is justified in his contention that there is a manifest tendency in later philosophy to reinstate in the content of the idea of God this occasionally neglected element. And the tendency is just and discriminating so far as it is expressive of the truth that our ultimate conception must be the result of a synthesis, not an analysis, and must include, not eject, the higher elements of consciousness. The doctrine of the Divine immanence, the central conception of all modern philosophy, is itself meaningless if it does not enable us to clothe the abstract idea of God in those forms which the Divine Reality assumes during the process of its self-revelation. Dr. Wenley, in the Glasgow address now elaborated and published, wherein he traverses briefly, but with selective care, the field more fully reaped by Mr. Lindsay, points out, in a striking passage, that even the notion of Divine transcendence arises out of the revelation, through the persistent pressure of personal life towards the unattained, of a transcendent element in man himself. Certainly that unattained Reality which is his ideal, motive, and end must be conceived as of fuller content than any limited personality.

It is conspicuously the case, however, that the emphasis so frequently laid on the element of personality in God has another purpose, connected with what Wendell Holmes has called the "tendency to shift the total responsibility of all human action from the Infinite to the finite." Dr. Wenley speaks of God as "a spiritual person limited like ourselves," and Mr. Lindsay observes that "Personality, as involving limitation, is no more to be withheld from the absolute than other attributes." Although the latter statement seems to us to be itself meaningless, we can nevertheless understand its drift and purpose. The noticeable recoil to-day from Hegelian first principles is a recoil mainly in the interests of moral responsibility, which seems to many entirely to disappear, if freedom be merely action in conformity with a character which heredity and environment have combined to develop. Yet that such is the origin of character can scarcely be a matter of doubt; and if man has some indeterminate freedom whereby he can act in a way not in conformity with character, it would seem that this severance between act and nature must equally destroy all moral validity. But we must not argue. That which chiefly perplexes us, however, in later theistic philosophy is the assertion of a human sphere of independence side by side with a verbal maintenance of the doctrine of the Divine immanence. "God is the life of all life; yet, in the moral sphere of being, a real, permanent, and discordant opposition of will to will is predicated. It was one who taught with authority who said: a house divided against a house falleth; and if Satan be divided against himself his kingdom cannot stand. Does, then, the rule apply only in relations human and satanic? And does it cease to operate when we reach the sphere of the Divine?"

Questions of the kind, however, will never be solved until some agreement is arrived at concerning the ultimate test of truth. And here we are quite content with Dr. Wenley's statement that "when a difficulty and a solution occur to a thinker, the latter"—the solution doubtless, not the thinker—"must be brought to the test of objective interpretation." We commend, therefore, to the later theistic philosophers Professor Wundt's "Outlines of Psychology," a translation of which is before us. Professor Wundt possesses the constructive faculty common to his nation, and something more than its common lucidity—though doubtless for this some thanks are due to his translator. His psychological method is empirical. He has no metaphysical hypothesis to maintain, but merely a "process of immediate experience" to observe and follow. This is justifiable, for it does not deny that a process may be found to imply a permanence. Among many topics of interest we may mention particularly, in the present connexion, his account of the origin of volitions. Certainly it appears to leave little room for operations of an individual will which are independent of the precedent conditions out of which the will itself emerges.



## FICTION.

"Arrested." By Esmé Stuart. London: F. V. White & Co. 1896.

"Margot." By Sidney Pickering. London: Lawrence & Bullen. 1897.

"Glamour." By Meta Orred. London: John Lane. 1897.

WHEN we make his acquaintance, in the first chapter of "Arrested," Mr. Oliver Englefield, hero, is a dreary boor. He talks of himself, grandly, as having been "scorned by the world." As he is not Leader of Her Majesty's Opposition, but only a country-town bank clerk getting on in love less well than he would like, this surprises us so much that we are inclined to hear no more of him. Some premonition, however, lures us on; and we are rewarded well. Miss Elsie Kennerly, the mistress of Yule Farm, is as charming a heroine as we have met for many a day; her grandmother, her aunt, and the lodging-house keeper in the neighbouring town are amiable persons, very humorously drawn; and the hero turns out to be not at all such a common fool as he looked at first. Tim, also, we like very much. Tim is the village "natural," who walks the downs and the seashore uncannily at night, and solves the eerie mystery which threatened to culminate with Englefield dangling from the gallows. In all respects "Arrested," after the first chapter, is a pleasant tale.

"Margot" tries one's patience. She has such a spite against her father because he was not married to her mother that off she skipped to Paris to be an art-student with a grudge against the world. So the chronicler says; but we cannot believe him. It is impossible to conceive of hatred arising in a child from an abstract theory of morals applied by the child to its parents. A personal hatred has in every case a specific cause; and natural history proves that in the minds of the illegitimate the illicit love which called them into being does not cause hatred of the parents. Starting from an incredible theory, Mr. Pickering's story does not improve upon acquaintance. We can take none but the feeblest interest either in the Russian lunatic to whom Margot is secretly married or in the dull English humbug who woos her for her wealth.

"Glamour" is the work of an American person so profound that we have not the least idea what it demonstrates. It opens with a young woman and a young man talking about Influence, Good, Evil, and Belief, in a manner so impressive and ungrammatical that we must refer the work, for ultimate judgment, to the Culture Clubs of Boston. We fear that in these blest isles there is not even a Mechanics' Institute which could make head or tail of it.

"Christine of the Hills." By Max Pemberton. London: A. D. Innes & Co. 1897.

"Cursed by Fortune." By George Manville Fenn. London: E. V. White & Co. 1897.

"A Passing Madness." By Florence Marryat. London: Hutchinson & Co. 1897.

Mr. Pemberton is too fond of ancient times. We are quite prepared to hear the romances of those days; but his manner of narration is a weariness. It was so even in "A Puritan's Wife," the story of which was attractive; it is nigh unbearable in "Christine of the Hills." "Carissima, anima mia," he cried, 'now art thou surely my wife! Thou dost not fear my touch, Christine—nay, thou wilt lie in my arms always, for I love thee, I love thee.'" A little of that style of thing we could endure; but 312 mortal pages of it cloy one's appetite for Mr. Pemberton's thoroughly ancient diction. It does seem unreasonable to complain of a novelist because he makes his characters speak in the manner of their period. Still, Mr. Pemberton's skill in the art of making them speak so is obtrusive. That is the more to be deplored inasmuch as the story in itself is good.

If books like "Cursed by a Fortune" are generally read, we cannot but believe that the great mind of the people must have a poor opinion about the upper classes. The story speedily lands us in a country house in Kent, where we find the head of the family squabbling

with his wife in the presence of a young medical man visiting them for the first time. Saving the physician and the anæmic heroine, all the characters are either fools or blackguards. They "take in" one another ceremoniously to luncheon; quarrel and intrigue incessantly; and come to blows when their strenuous vulgarity is felt to be insufficiently exciting. The story, for which we can imagine no counterpart in life, is unreadable.

In Miss Marryat's new novel also, a young physician is the hero. He has to protect his sweetheart against her brother, who is twin with the other sister and murderously disposed to all other persons. The story has a certain dramatic merit.

"The Queen of the Moor." By Frederic Adye. London: Macmillan. 1897.

"Caoba." By P. H. Emerson. London: David Nutt. 1897.

Mr. Adye has an intimate knowledge of the wilds of Devon and of the sport which is to be found there. We enjoy his fox-chases, the trout-fishing, and the fight; but he makes us pay dearly for that pleasure. Towards the end of his extremely long book he tells us, complacently, that during his residence in Devon he had acquired much knowledge about the French prisoners who were settled there before the battle of Waterloo, and felt obliged to spin a romance in order to show that knowledge off. The story is as poor as such a conceited person was sure to make it. Its love affairs are perverse, and the narrative is heavy-footed.

"Caoba" is a tract rather than a novel. Dr. Emerson would like to see Cuba placed "under the rule of the all-conquering Saxon," and wrote the book in order to show cause why that should be. Nevertheless, we have read it with subdued interest.

"Only an Angel: a Story of Two Kreutzer Sonatas." By Francis Gribble. London: Innes. 1897.

"Only an Angel" is an improvement on Mr. Gribble's former efforts. That is not high praise, we know. But the book affords some slight food for reflection, and we must be thankful for small mercies nowadays. It reflects the Spirit of the Age with painful fidelity, the *motifs* being that chivalry is foolishness and that a woman is "only an angel" until she has taken in the Kreutzer Sonata. Mr. Gribble evidently contemns angels as much as he does the clergy and the hymn-book. "Because he was the chaplain," we read, "I fancied that he would probably say something foolish." That is a fair sample of Mr. Gribble's humour. And here is his plot. A frigid young woman, described as an angel, but in reality only a prig, refuses a fool because he is not "one of the World's Workers," and bids him come again when he shall have become one. But he protests against the humiliation of flattering a woman's whim and goes off to Switzerland to forget her. She becomes engaged to a Balliol man, who is held up to ridicule for a superior person—superior to Mr. Gribble, that is. The Balliol man finds his Kreutzer Sonata in the unlikely person of a fifth-rate actress and breaks off his engagement. The angel goes to Switzerland, hears that the fool is climbing the Dent Blanche, accordingly finds her Kreutzer Sonata in desperate anxiety about him, ceases to be an angel, and marries him. There is an incidental apotheosis of Switzerland, with a melancholy recitative of ugly names by way of local colour; there are pages of incoherent balderdash, which Mr. Gribble sums up as "a mad muddle," in the vain hope that we shall contradict him; and there are trowelsful of bad taste at every touch and turn. Here is an unwarrantable passage in point: "a married life as rich and full, and peaceful as—shall we say?—Mr. and Mrs. Gladstone's." That real live ladies should thus be dragged into vulgar novels as conjugal illustrations is a new departure, and, we submit, by no means a happy one. There is, however, a tinge of wit in the description of the Balliol man who "sat up in the small hours arguing whether the expression 'a mixed biscuit' was philosophically correct," and his thesis certainly compares favourably with Mr. Gribble's disquisitions on the subject of women and angels.

"A Princess of Islam." By J. W. Sherer, C.S.I.  
London: Swan Sonnenschein. 1897.

It is disappointing, after reading in a preface that the title-character is to be the main feature of this book, and that all the other characters are merely subsidiary, to find her persistently ignored. What little there is about the Princess of Islam is so promising that we wish the author had carried out his intention, or, at the least, revised his preface when he found he was unable to do so. He knows a good deal about India, but he is irritating when he depicts commonplace English people in a commonplace way. The idea of the story is excellent, but the execution is indifferent, and the plot beneath contempt.

"Pantallas" (Bentley), by Edward Jenkins, comes as a link between these days and over twenty years ago, when its author made a hit with his "Ginx's Baby." He now breaks the long silence with a hot-headed pamphlet, rather than a book, upon the failure of all charitable schemes to meet the case of the abjectly "submerged." Such monsters as he describes may possibly exist as everyday phenomena and may even propagate such monstrous families. However this may be, it needs no torturing of the imagination to convince the ordinary man that an unreachable class of destitute beings can exist among us.

"Craiktrees" (Fisher Unwin), by Watson Dyke, has none of the bland simplicity of the Kailyard about it. What pathos and humour it has are grim and even sordid, of deliberate intent. The book has decided character and vigour. It appears to be a first attempt, but the style does not suggest a novice.

"Margaret Moore, Spinster" (Ward & Downey), by A. W. Buckland, would be a good book for a girl.

In "Our Wills and Fates" (Osgood, McIlvaine), by Katherine Wylde, the author has succeeded in making a somewhat hackneyed idea the centre of quite a fresh and interesting novel. The discovery that a man's chosen wife is the daughter of his greatest enemy, and the consequent parting, have been done many a time. The freshness lies in the character of the wife—a really charming conception—and the good, workmanlike writing, which robs improbabilities of their extravagance, and makes the end genuinely pathetic.

"A Passing World" (Ward & Downey), by Bessie Rayner Belloc, is something of a medley, but very readable. The bulk of the book is taken up with reminiscences, trivial but interesting, of innumerable famous men and women. The descriptions of the young Queen come at an appropriate time; those of Augusta Drane will hardly interest many in this country, nor will her quoted poems edify, with the exception of some graceful lines on Newman's "Grammar of Assent." The book ends with some essays which are pure journalism, however delicate and brilliant. The real beauty of style possessed by the author of "In a Walled Garden" comes out more clearly in these last chapters than in the mass of desultory biography that precedes them.

"As a Roaring Lion" (Skeffington), by Richard Penderel, is a rather entertaining mixture of sentiment and sensation.

"Out of Her Shroud" (A. & C. Black), by Henry Ochiltree, confused us more than once as to its story, and beat us down with its dialect. It ends with a scene that would have been effective if the title had not somewhat anticipated the *dénouement*.

#### LITERARY NOTES.

A SERIES of new Classical Texts will shortly be issued at Oxford, superseding the neat little duodecimos so well known to nearly two generations of scholars. The series will be printed on improved paper in octavo; to each volume will be prefixed a Latin preface dealing with the history of the text; there will be no notes; but the greatest care will be taken with the settlement of the text. The Dean of Lincoln, Dr. Wickham, is to undertake Horace, Dr. Wilkins, of Owens College, Cicero, and Dr. Monro, the Provost of Oriel, Homer.

Professor George Parkin has completed his Life of the famous educationist Mr. Thring, of Uppingham. It will be in two volumes, and in addition to a full account of Thring's life, career and theories of teaching, it will contain much interesting correspondence. As the whole is in type its publication may be expected shortly.

Our denunciation of and prophecies about the English Literature-School at Oxford as at present constituted have just received, according to the "University Gazette," very remarkable corroboration in the Class List issued: four candidates and three examiners!

Messrs. Macmillan's uniform edition of Kipling will be in twelve volumes, including "The Naulahka," which was written in conjunction with the late Wolcott Balestier. It will be limited to a thousand and fifty copies, at six guineas the set.

The edition of English poets which Messrs. George Bell are contemplating is to be inaugurated by the "Poems of John Keats," with an introduction by Professor Walter Raleigh, and the "Poems of Robert Browning," the preface to which will be supplied by Dr. Richard Garnett. The former will be illustrated by Mr. Robert Anning Bell, and the Browning volume by Mr. Byam Shaw.

A volume of three hundred pages devoted to "The Bible References of John Ruskin" may be presumed to have a *raison d'être*, seeing the sanction of the author has been given to the selection, which the Misses Mary and Ellen Gibbs have undertaken. The book will be published by Mr. George Allen.

An agreement has been entered into between Maurus Jókai and Messrs. Jarrold for the production of such of his novels as have not hitherto been translated into English. The first work is to be "The Lion of Janina; or, the Last of the Janissaries," which will appear next month.

Another addition to cycling literature is in preparation at St. Dunstan's House, from the pen of Mr. Robert Louis Jefferson, who is supplementing his experiences on wheels across Europe to Moscow by a second volume on "Roughing it in Siberia."

Among Messrs. Black's autumn issues the more notable are "The Story of Mr. Gladstone's Life," by Mr. Justin McCarthy; "The Making of Abbotsford," by the Hon. Mary Monica Maxwell Scott; and the further instalment of Professor Shield Nicholson's "Principles of Political Economy." Black's series of English Text-books has made considerable progress. The "School Geography" is advanced by two volumes, "Europe" and "North America"; to the "School Shakespeare" is added "A Midsummer Night's Dream" and "Macbeth"; and to the "Literary Epoch Series," "Nineteenth-Century Prose" and "Nineteenth-Century Poetry."

The veteran Indian civilian and historian, Mr. H. G. Keene, is bringing out, under the auspices of Messrs. Thacker & Co., a volume of recollections, extending over nearly half a century; this he has entitled "A Servant of John Company." The same publishers have also ready the *édition de luxe* of Kipling's "Departmental Ditties and other Verses," which is limited to 150 copies. The dedication has been accepted by Lord Roberts.

Messrs. Thacker have numerous other publications in preparation, mainly dealing with our Eastern Empire, among which may be mentioned a second edition of "Tactics as applied to Schemes," by Major J. Sherston, with an appendix by Captain L. J. Shadwell; "The Rod in India," by Mr. H. S. Thomas; "The Best Breeds of British Stock," by Professors Sheldon and James Long; and "Medical Hints for Hot Climates," by Mr. Charles Heaton.

Those who enjoyed "The Adventures of Two Dutch Dolls and a Golliwogg" will look forward to Miss Bertha Upton's new book, "The Vegeman's Revenge," which Messrs. Longmans are reserving for the autumn. Two other works to be published by the same firm are Dr. James Sully's "Children's Ways," which consists in selections from the author's "Studies in Childhood," and "The Professor's Children," a story by Miss Edith H. Fowler.



Several additions are being made to the Natural Science Manuals, by the Cambridge Press, such as Mr. A. S. Woodward's "Vertebrate Palæontology"; "Fossil Plants: a Manual for Students of Botany and Geology," by Mr. A. C. Seward; "Electricity and Magnetism," by Mr. R. T. Glazebrook; and "Sound," by Mr. J. W. Capstick.

The next volume in the series of County Histories which Mr. Edward Arnold is producing is "The Story of Lancashire"; it will be followed by the histories of London and the Midlands.

That sport is always a publisher's trump card is again manifested by the reception of Prince Ranjitsinhji's book. Not only is the *édition de luxe* practically exhausted, but also the twenty-five shilling edition. The popular editions of ten and five thousand, respectively, have been quite inadequate for the demands of the cricket enthusiast.

Sensationalism and clairvoyance are the material on which Mr. Mark English has based his new novel, "The Sorrows of a Society Woman," which the Roxburghe Press is producing immediately.

This autumn will see the publication of Major Arthur Griffiths's appreciation of "Wellington, his Comrades and Contemporaries." Mr. George Allen is making it uniform with "Nelson and his Companions in Arms," and is embellishing the volume with twelve photographic portraits in the possession of the family.

Mr. Charles W. Smith, author of "Commercial Gambling" and other works, has for some years interested himself in the subject of agricultural and trade depression. He has now formulated an elaborate reply to the recent final report of the Royal Commission, and has secured its publication by Messrs. Sampson Low.

Mr. D. M. Gane has expounded his views upon the value of education in the formation of character in a volume which he calls "The Building of the Intellect." Mr. Elliot Stock will issue it shortly.

Among the useful contributions to the Students' Number of the "Lancet," published this week, are a list of all the standard works on the various subjects required from the candidate by the different examining boards, and an article on the future of photography in its relation to medicine.

Besides their educational works announced in last week's issue, Messrs. Rivington have several classical volumes in preparation, including Thucydides's "Pylos and Sphakteria," edited by Mr. W. H. D. Rouse; "Greek Prose Composition," by Mr. M. A. North and the Rev. A. E. Hillard; and "Exercises in the Syntax and Idioms of Attic Greek," by Mr. W. H. D. Rouse and Mr. J. M. Sing.

#### NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"Birds of our Islands." By F. A. Fulcher. London: Andrew Melrose. 1897.

THE author of this well-illustrated and prettily got-up book has been fortunate in her publisher. It is true that the drawings have done duty before, too often in some cases; moreover, it strikes one as somewhat incongruous to meet with such moderns as Thorburn, Lodge, and Bryan Hook, side by side with Giacomelli and other familiar friends of a sadly remote boyhood. Still, a well-printed, nicely-bound, gilt-edged volume of 368 pages at the price of three-and-six (subject to discount), seems to show that the contest among publishers as to who shall give us the most for our money has not yet come to an end. The book treats of the ways of the feathered inhabitants of these islands: it is a compilation, supplemented with the author's impressions and observations, and is intended to interest the general reader, especially the young, in the subject of wild bird life. In a book of this character it was well to be untechnical, and to describe the birds by their English names alone; but the author is occasionally a trifle lax in her ornithology, or too tolerant of old and erroneous popular ideas, as when she describes the swift as one of the "four swallows" which inhabit this country. The book is written in a simple, agreeable style, with a manifest love of the subject; it would form a most acceptable present to a country boy home for his summer holidays; and it would delight him to find that his birds'-nesting proclivities are not rebuked.

"The New Siberia." By Harry de Windt, F.R.G.S. London: Chapman & Hall, Limited. 1897.

Is Mr. Harry de Windt a reliable witness? On the answer to that question depends the value of his book describing his visit to the Russian convict settlements on the island of Sakhalin, and to the political prisons and mines of Eastern Siberia. It has been said that he carries a brief for the Russian Government, and shuts his eyes to the darkest side of the Russian convict system. That view is assuredly not dissipated by his admission that in no other case has permission been granted to a foreigner to travel on a Russian convict ship, to inspect the prisons in the interior of Sakhalin, and to associate freely with "politicals" working out their exile in the mines of Nertchinsk. His permit opened all doors and all mouths; he saw what he wanted and asked what questions he pleased in the assurance that they would be answered. As what he has to say amounts to a virtual whitewashing of the penal system of Russia—a process unique among English writers—some doubts are inevitable as to the worth of his observations. Nor does a study of his book show that these doubts are unwarranted. Mr. de Windt, whilst striving to convey a general notion that Russia has devised something approaching a pattern purgatory, sharply criticizes and exposes the shortcomings and barbarities which are possible under the prison régime of Siberia and Sakhalin. But the things he finds to denounce can hardly be regarded as the exceptions, and serve to show the lengths to which the Russian penal régime is carried. Mr. de Windt argues that only the very worst offenders are subjected to the inhumanities which form the basis of the charges levelled against Russia in her treatment of her convicts. He gives an idea of the sort of creature on whom he would have us believe sentimentalists are apt to waste crocodilian tears. The convicts have a kind of penal code among themselves, transgressors being tried before the headman of a gang. In one instance mentioned by Mr. de Windt, a half-witted youngster had complained to the officials of something done by a companion. For this act of treachery to his fellows he was sentenced to be kept awake for seven consecutive days and nights. His companions took it in turn to watch, and when the wretch began to doze they ran pins into him. The "plet"—a cat-o'-three-tails, chiefly used for whipping murderers, the extreme employment of which generally results in death—is hardly capable of inflicting punishment more terrible than that meted out by convicts sitting in judgment on one of themselves. The part played by the representatives of the Russian Government in cases where these things are discovered is that of humanity; but we have to remember that Mr. de Windt's defence of governors and warders rests on evidence supplied by the governors and warders themselves.

Russia, Mr. de Windt says, is disposed to gradually abolish the system of exile to Siberia in favour of deportation by sea to Sakhalin, and his opinion is that her object is not so much to punish crime as to colonize Russian Asia. Existence at Korsakovsky-Post, at Alexandrovsky-Post, and Rykovskaya is not perhaps exactly idyllic, even as painted by Mr. de Windt, but it is certainly far from being intolerable. The system is one of restricted freedom. The percentage of convicts actually under lock and key is small. The majority, some in prison garb, others in plain clothes, go about their business like ordinary men and women. The convicts are divided into three classes: first, those whose behaviour in prison warrants their conditional release; second, those who are undergoing a probationary period in prison; and third, those who, being wholly dangerous, are closely confined and heavily manacled. A man under a life sentence, Mr. de Windt assures us, need not, if he behaves himself, pass more than eight years actually in prison. The semi-free obtain employment in various capacities, some as clerks in Government service, and some as domestic servants and watchmen; some go into trade, and many are assisted by the Government to take up agriculture. It is quaint to read of that once notorious queen of the demi-monde, Sophie Bloeffstein, the "Golden Hand," whose frauds were the sensation of Europe, quietly providing the village of Rykovskaya with eggs and vegetables, like the most innocent of cottage dames. Sakhalin was full of surprises of this nature for Mr. de Windt. A novel—one of the few works professing to give some account of the place on which he could lay his hands—led him to expect an Inferno. Sakhalin was spoken of as "the gate of an Eternal Hell." Mr. de Windt emphatically denies that it is anything of the kind. His argument is that escaped convicts are wholly unprincipled in describing horrors, and soon find that it pays to make the flesh of the public creep. Mr. de Windt has written an interesting book, but we cannot accept all he says without question. The utmost we can do is to regard it as evidence that the tendency is towards humaner methods than have obtained in the past. Well for Russia would it be, were that proved to be the case!

"Camping in the Canadian Rockies," by W. D. Wilcox (London and New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897), is a charmingly illustrated account of camp-life in the wilder and less known parts of the Canadian Rocky Mountains, together with an impressionist description of the region about Banff, Lake Louise, and Glacier. Mr. Wilcox has the knack of in-

teresting his reader in word-pictures of natural scenery. He fully appreciates the romantic and grander sides of Nature as seen in the Rockies, and especially in those regions where the vague traditions of warlike events among the Indians form the greater part of the material available for the purposes of history. With the increase of business across the magnificent highway of the Dominion, the places dealt with by Mr. Wilcox will become more and more the resort of the tripper and holiday-maker. His book is a welcome memorial of the Canadian Rockies in their still primitive aspects. The pictures are excellent, and argue no small courage and resource on the part of the author. Photographers will appreciate the difficulties he overcame in using the camera successfully among ice-gripped and wind-swept heights.

"Echoes of Old Calcutta," by H. E. Busteed, C.I.E. (London: Thacker, Spink & Co.), has now reached a third and considerably enlarged edition. The author has had access to sources of information which have enabled him to revise and amplify the chapters relating to the Black Hole, and some additional illustrations lend fresh interest to the volume. Mr. Busteed does not pretend to literary merits, and his purpose was merely to collect certain reminiscences and gossip of the days of Warren Hastings, Francis and Impey. The result is an entertaining glimpse into the social life of India, and especially of Calcutta, rather more than a century ago. In ordinary histories we see little of the Anglo-Indian life of the past save that which exclusively affects the men, and Mr. Busteed's success seems to be largely due to the prominence he has given to the parts played by one or two ladies.

#### THIS WEEK'S BOOKS.

- Anti-Philistine, The (August).  
 Architectural Review, The (Vol. I.) (November-May).  
 Authors and Publishers (G. H. P.) Putnams. 7s. 6d.  
 Bollingbroke, Lord (Hon. S. Erskine). Roxburghe Press. 2s. 6d.  
 Bound Together (Rosa Mulholland). Murphy.  
 Canadian Magazine, The (August).  
 Citizen Bird (Wright and Coues). Macmillan. 6s.  
 Comparative Anatomy of Vertebrates, Elements of the (W. N. Parker). Macmillan. 12s. 6d.  
 Cricket Lyrics (T. Disney). Digby, Long.  
 Diamond Bang's, The (S. Crane). Digby, Long.  
 Divan of the Dales, A. (S. S. Swithaine). Digby, Long.  
 Free Trade Policy, The Tory Origin of (W. J. Ashley).  
 Fruit Growing, The Principles of (L. H. Bailey). Macmillan. 5s.  
 Gunton's Magazine (August).  
 Ladies' Kennel Journal, The (July-August).  
 Married Life (C. H. Brooke). Masters.  
 Mary Magdalene, The Repentance or Conversion of (C. H. Brooke). Masters.  
 Micky Magee's Menagerie (S. H. Hamer). Cassell. 12. 6d.  
 Millinery, Practical (Jessica Ortnor). Whittaker. 2s. 6d.  
 Mining Manual, The, 1897 (W. R. Skinner).  
 Model Drawing on True Principles (W. Mann). Nelson. 5s.  
 Nippur (J. P. Peters). Putnams. 12s. 6d.  
 On Many Seas (F. B. Williams). Putnams. 6s.  
 One Heart, One Way (W. R. Sharer). Hurst & Blackett.  
 Open Court, The (August).  
 Padre in Parisius, A (G. M. Reith). Kelly & Walsh.  
 Pall Mall Magazine, The (September).  
 Realism and Romance (H. Macarthur). Hunter. 3s. 6d.  
 Review of Reviews, The (August).  
 Songs and Shadows (E. M. Beresford). Digby, Long.  
 Sugar and the West Indies (E. S. Scholes). Stock.  
 That Tree of Eden (Nicholas Christian). Hutchinson. 3s. 6d.  
 Volcanoes of North America (J. C. Russell). Macmillan. 16s.  
 Where the Surf Breaks (M. F. A. Tench). Hurst & Blackett.  
 Worship of Lucifer, The (Mina Sandeman). Digby, Long.  
 X Rays, The A B C of the (W. H. Meadowcroft). Simpkin.

*The Editor cannot undertake to return rejected Communications. He must also entirely decline to enter into correspondence with writers of MSS. sent in and not acknowledged.*

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Scholarships and money prizes of the value of £300 are awarded at the Sessional Examinations, as well as several medals.

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A register of approved lodgings is kept by the Medical Secretary, who also has a list of local medical practitioners, clergymen, and others who receive Students into their houses.

For prospectuses and all particulars apply to Mr. RENDLE, the Medical Secretary.

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##### KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—STUDENTS in Arts

and Science, Engineering, Architecture, and Applied Sciences, Medicine, and other branches of education will be admitted for the next Term on Tuesday, September 28. EVENING CLASSES commence Thursday, September 30.

Students are classed on entrance according to their proficiency, and terminal reports of the progress and conduct of Matriculated Students are sent to their parents and guardians. There are Entrance Scholarships and Exhibitions.

Students who are desirous of studying any particular subject or subjects, without attending the complete courses of the various faculties, can be admitted as non-matriculated students on payment of the separate fees for such classes as they select.

The College has an entrance both from the Strand and from the Thames Embankment, close to the Temple Station.

For Prospectuses and all information apply to the SECRETARY, King's College, London, W.C.

##### GUYS HOSPITAL MEDICAL SCHOOL.—The

WINTER SESSION will begin on Monday, October 4th.

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**NOTICE.—The Second Edition of "POT-POURRI FROM A SURREY GARDEN," by Mrs. C. W. EARLE, Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d., having been immediately exhausted, a Third Edition has been put to press, and will be ready next Wednesday.**

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**BONANZA, LIMITED.**

CAPITAL - - - - £200,000.

June 1897.

**PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT.****EXPENDITURE for 5,815 Tons.**

	£	s.	d.
Mining .. .. .	3,566	9	11
Sorting and Crushing .. .. .	460	17	5
Milling .. .. .	1,375	4	2
Maintenance .. .. .	476	16	8
Mine Office .. .. .	627	1	8
Transfer Office .. .. .	415	10	3
Cyaniding .. .. .	981	12	2

Written off for Development Redemption .. .. . 7,903 12 3  
2,762 2 6

Profit for June .. .. . 10,665 14 9  
19,708 8 1

£30,374 2 10

**REVENUE.**

	£	s.	d.
MILL GOLD:			
Gold won 5,486 <sup>25</sup> ozs. at 70s. .. .. .	19,204	17	0
Less Insurance .. .. .	31	10	6
Plus amount received in excess of Book entries for May .. .. .	19,173	6	6
Plus amount received in excess of Book entries for May .. .. .	682	16	10

	£	s.	d.
CYANIDE GOLD:			
Gold won 2,906 <sup>45</sup> ozs. at 70s. .. .. .	10,172	11	6
Plus amount received in excess of Book entries for May .. .. .	345	8	0
	10,517	19	6

Total (£5 4s. 5<sup>6d.</sup> per ton) .. .. . £30,374 2 10

**FURTHER EXPENDITURE.—(On Capital Account.)**

	£	s.	d.
Development .. .. .	£1,166	15	5
New Slime Works .. .. .	545	0	3
Water Service Trench .. .. .	733	14	10
Crusher House Extension .. .. .	450	4	0
	£2,895	14	6

**PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT above shows:—**

Income .. .. .	£30,374 2 10 equal to £5 4 s <sup>6</sup> per ton milled.
Working Expenditure .. .. .	7,903 12 3 " 1 7 2 <sup>17</sup> "
Gross Profit .. .. .	£22,470 10 17 " £3 17 3 <sup>43</sup> "
Less Written off for Redemption .. .. .	2,762 2 6 " 0 9 6 "
Balance—Nett Profit .. .. .	£19,708 8 1 " £3 7 9 <sup>43</sup> per ton

FRANCIS SPENCER, Manager.

**ROBINSON SOUTH AFRICAN BANKING COMPANY, Limited.**

1 Bank Buildings, Lothbury, London, E.C., August 14, 1897.

The Association of Mines of the South African Republic have cabled to their London Agents, the Robinson South African Banking Company, Limited, that for the month of July an output amounting to 48,225 ozs. was obtained by the following Companies:—

ROODEPOORT UNITED MAIN REEF. MEYER and CHARLTON. PRINCESS ESTATE. VAN RYN. GEORGE GOCH (AMALGAMATED). WEMMER. LANGLAAGTE ESTATE. BLOCK B LANGLAAGTE ESTATE. LANCASTER. NEW MIDAS ESTATE. PORGES RANDFONTEIN. NORTH RANDFONTEIN. WEST RAND. VAN RYN WEST.

This compares with 47,301 ozs. in the preceding month.

**SOUTH METROPOLITAN GAS COMPANY.**

SALE BY TENDER OF £43,333 6s. 8d. THREE PER CENT. PERPETUAL DEBENTURE STOCK.

MINIMUM PRICE, £105 PER CENT.

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN that it is the intention of the Directors of this Company to sell by Tender £43,333 6s. 8d. of Three per Cent. Perpetual Debenture Stock, in accordance with the provisions of the South Metropolitan Gas Acts, 1862 and 1866.

Particulars of same, with Form of Tender, can be obtained at this office, on application to the undersigned, and Tenders must be sent in on or before Tuesday, the 14th day of September, 1897. The Stock will be allotted to the highest bidders, but no Tender will be accepted at a lower price than at the rate of £105 money for each £100 Debenture Stock.

By order,

FRANK BUSH, Secretary.

Offices, 700A Old Kent Road, S.E.  
18th August, 1897.

**LONDON AGENTS:**

ROBINSON SOUTH AFRICAN BANKING COMPANY, LIMITED,  
1 Bank Buildings, Lothbury, E.C.

**THE LANGLAAGTE ESTATE AND GOLD MINING COMPANY, Limited.**

PRODUCTION FOR JULY 1897.

**BY CABLE.****MILL.**

Stamps running .. .. .	200
Ore crushed .. .. .	25,212 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold retorted .. .. .	7,501 ozs.

**TAILINGS—CYANIDE PROCESS.**

Tons treated .. .. .	13,950 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold recovered .. .. .	1,749 ozs.

**CONCENTRATES—CYANIDE PROCESS.**

Tons treated .. .. .	750 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold recovered .. .. .	1,485 ozs.
Total Gold recovered .. .. .	10,733 ozs.

**THE PORGES RANDFONTEIN GOLD MINING COMPANY, Limited.**

PRODUCTION FOR JULY 1897.

**BY CABLE.****MILL.**

Stamps running .. .. .	60
Ore crushed .. .. .	8,450 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold retorted .. .. .	2,813 ozs.

**TAILINGS—CYANIDE PROCESS.**

Tons treated .. .. .	5,175 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold recovered .. .. .	802 ozs.

**CONCENTRATES—CYANIDE PROCESS.**

Tons treated .. .. .	100 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold recovered .. .. .	262 ozs.
Total Gold recovered .. .. .	3,577 ozs.

**MEMORANDUM.**

The decrease in the Output of the Langlaagte Estate and Gold Mining Company, Limited, and Porges Randfontein Gold Mining Company, Limited, has arisen from the scarcity of native labour owing to the wintry weather. A sufficient supply of labour is shortly expected.

**BLOCK B LANGLAAGTE ESTATE GOLD MINING COMPANY, Limited.**

PRODUCTION FOR JULY 1897.

**BY CABLE.****MILL.**

Stamps running .. .. .	75
Ore crushed .. .. .	10,046 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold retorted .. .. .	2,528 ozs.

**TAILINGS—CYANIDE PROCESS.**

Tons treated .. .. .	5,330 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold recovered .. .. .	824 ozs.

**CONCENTRATES—CYANIDE PROCESS.**

Tons treated .. .. .	205 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold recovered .. .. .	414 ozs.
Total Gold recovered .. .. .	3,766 ozs.

**THE NORTH RANDFONTEIN GOLD MINING COMPANY, Limited.**

PRODUCTION FOR JULY 1897.

**BY CABLE.****MILL.**

Stamps running .. .. .	60
Ore crushed .. .. .	6,676 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold retorted .. .. .	1,820 ozs.

**TAILINGS—CYANIDE PROCESS.**

Tons treated .. .. .	6,000 tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold recovered .. .. .	961 ozs.

**CONCENTRATES—CYANIDE PROCESS.**

Tons treated .. .. .	— tons of 2,000 lbs.
Gold recovered .. .. .	— ozs.
Total Gold recovered .. .. .	2,781 ozs.

**GLYNN'S LYDENBURG, Limited.**

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN that the second ORDINARY GENERAL MEETING of Shareholders in the above-named Company will be held at Johannesburg on October 29, 1897, for the following business:—

- To receive and consider the Statement of Profit and Loss Account and Balance-Sheet, and the Reports of the Directors and Auditors to July 31, 1897.
- To elect Directors in the place of Messrs. Lionel Phillips, H. W. Glenny, Abe Bailey, D. H. Benjamin, F. Watkins, H. T. Glynn, and J. P. Fitzpatrick, who retire in terms of the Trust Deed, but are eligible and offer themselves for re-election.
- To appoint Auditors for the ensuing year and to fix the remuneration of the present Auditors.
- To transact any business arising out of the Directors' Report, and for any other ordinary business of the Company.

A. MOIR, London Secretary.

London Office, 120 Bishopsgate Street Within, E.C.  
August 17, 1897.

# THE FERREIRA GOLD MINING CO. LIMITED.

## CAPITAL (fully issued) - £90,000

### OVER 100 PER CENT. PROFIT IN THE LAST THREE MONTHS.

JOHANNESBURG, July 1897.

The Directors beg to submit the following Report on the Working Operations of the Company for the Quarter ending June 30, 1897:—

#### EXPENDITURE AND REVENUE.

WORKING EXPENDITURE.				REVENUE.			
Mining Expenses...	...	...	£31,817 0 9	Gold Account...	...	...	£88,849 2 11
Development Redemption 31,096 tons	...	...		Cyanide Works—Profit on Working	...	...	26,570 16 5
at 5s. ...	...	...	7,774 0 0	Concentrates Sold	...	...	22,438 11 2
Transport Expenses ...	...	...	£39,591 0 9				
Reduction Expenses ...	...	...	524 9 10				
			5,335 15 0				
			£45,451 5 7				
Profit for Quarter ...	...	...	92,407 4 11				
			£137,858 10 6				£137,858 10 6
General Charges ...	...	...	£4,812 13 8				
Maintenance ...	...	...	5,046 0 5				
				Distributed over Mining, Transport, and Reduction Accounts, &c.			
Mine Development Account	...	...					£9,526 19 8

#### CAPITAL EXPENDITURE.

Machinery and Plant	...	...	£12,121 1 8
Buildings	...	...	3,233 17 1
Permanent Works	...	...	3,985 0 5
			£19,339 19 2

#### AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING EXPENSES.

Mining Account	...	...	48,789 tons at 16s. 2 7/8d. per ton.
Transport Account	...	...	31,096 tons at 4 1/4d. per ton.
Reduction Account	...	...	31,096 tons at 3s. 5 1/8d. per ton.
			19s. 11 7/8d. per ton.

#### MINE.

No. 1 Main Shaft has been sunk 22½ feet. Total depth 1,552 feet.  
No. 2 Main Shaft has been sunk 66 feet. Total depth 1,562 feet.

#### SOUTH REEF.

The 720 feet level has been extended 7 feet. Average width of reef:—1 foot 10.92 inches. Average Assay value:—3 ozs. 4.83 dwts.

The 1,020 feet level has been extended 67 feet. Average width of reef:—2 feet 2.41 inches. Average assay value:—2 ozs. 8.56 dwts.

The 1,120 feet level has been extended 39 feet. Average width of reef:—2 feet 2.77 inches. Average assay value:—2 ozs. 12.98 dwts.

The 1,320 feet level has been extended 59½ feet. Average width of reef:—2 feet 3.31 inches. Average assay value:—3 ozs. 8.65 dwts.

#### MAIN REEF LEADER.

The 120 feet level has been extended 66 feet. Average width of reef:—6.14 inches. Average assay value:—3 ozs. 12.4 dwts.

The 920 feet level has been driven 34 feet. Average width of reef:—1 foot 3.96 inches. Average assay value:—1 oz. 15.45 dwts.

Average width of Leader and Main Reef to be mined with it:—4 feet 10.45 inches. Average Assay value:—11.25 dwts.

The 1,120 feet level has been extended 19 feet. Average width of reef:—1 foot 0.368 inches. Average assay value:—3 ozs. 5.69 dwts.

Average thickness of Leader and Main Reef to be mined with it:—4 feet 8.309 inches. Average assay value:—19.28 dwts.

The 1,320 feet level has been driven 205 feet. Average width of reef:—5.64 inches. Average assay value:—6 ozs. 5.36 dwts.

Average thickness of Leader and Main Reef to be mined with it:—4 feet 5.36 inches. Average assay value:—1 oz. 1.7 dwts.

Two Winzes below the 1,320 feet Level have been started in South Reef.

Two Rises above the 13th Level, and one above the 11th Level have been started.

#### MILL.

Ore crushed ... 31,096 tons.  
South Reef ... 22,171 tons:—71.29 per cent.

Main Reef and }  
M. R. Leader } 8,925 „ 28.71 „

Ore crushed per head per day ... 4.49 tons.  
Bar gold extracted ... 24,564.2 ozs.  
Yield per ton ... 15.798 dwts.  
Concentrates caught ... 868 tons.  
Assay value of Concentrates ... 7 ozs. 11 dwts. 19 grs.

#### CYANIDE WORKS.

Tailings treated ... 24,090 tons.  
Bullion produced ... 8,558.55 ozs.

#### SORTING.

Waste Rock picked out during the quarter ... 15,644 tons.

#### ORE DEPOSITED AT SURFACE.

2,049 tons of Sorted Reef have been deposited at surface during the quarter.

#### DIVIDEND NO. 13.

A Dividend of 150 per cent. (30s. per Share), has been declared for the half-year ended the 30th June, 1897, payable to all Shareholders registered on the 10th July.

Dividend Warrants will be posted from the Head Office on or about the 28th August.

Holders of Share Warrants to Bearer are informed that they will receive payment of dividend on presentation of Coupon No. 6, either at the Standard Bank of South Africa, Johannesburg, the Crédit Lyonnais, Paris, or at the London Office of the Company, 120 Bishopsgate Street Within, E.C.

Coupons must be left four clear days for examination at either of the two last-mentioned offices, and may be presented any time on or after Monday, the 21st July, 1897.

D. C. MATURIN, Secretary.

REGISTERED AS A NEWSPAPER.

Printed for the Proprietors by SPOTTISWOODE & CO., 5 New-street Square, E.C., and Published by ALFRED CUTHBERT DAVIES at the Office, 38 Southampton Street, Strand, in the Parish of St. Paul, Covent Garden, in the County of London.—Saturday, 21 August, 1897.